

THE CLEARING HOUSE

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Editorial

HOBGOBLINS IN HIGH SCHOOL

In the old days either ghosts were more given to prowling or people had better eyes for seeing them. Then, too, a real ghost is usually embarrassed by the reception he gets in our times: let him so much as pop up his head and newspapers and radio stations throughout the country make it an event. He is sure to be visited by great numbers of ghost hunters, and, what is even worse, by scientific gentlemen with cameras, slates, wax, and elaborate, intricate, delicate instruments to measure him, weigh him, fingerprint him, and record his temperature (or lack of it) and his humidity.

But there were never ghosts enough. At least, there were never enough of the goblin ghosts, the prankish ones, the ones who carried away front gates and wagons and outhouses and dropped these in unlikely places. The eve of All Saints' Day was the carnival eve, of course, for the prankish spirits, but the traditions they had to observe in this matter of shuffling gates and outhouses put altogether too much strain on them. Like Santa Claus, they never could have done in one night all the work laid out for them if it had not been for the generous help of those spirited mortals who shared with the ghosts the prankishness essential for such heavy work. The earliest nature fakers were these proxy goblins who, as time went on, took over a larger and larger share of the Halloween work of the prankish ghosts.

There is reason to believe that among

those who go a-ghosting there are a good many youngsters, boys and youths from twelve to twenty. This is not counting the doorbell ringers, who are often younger than twelve. The Halloween season is one of such peculiar delight for these boys that they rate it above fourth of July and second only to Christmas on their list of favorite holidays. They like the season so much that they have improved on the Church calendar by extending the celebration over almost a week of evenings preceding the one traditionally established by the Church as a "hallowed evening." In this new calendar the boys celebrate "corn night," "chalk night," "cabbage night," and some other "nights" not named at all but just given over to the business of getting warmed up for the occasion. There are local variations, of course, concerning what activities are appropriate as preliminaries to the grand climax Halloween. But it is all good, clean fun—for the celebrants, that is. The local householders who come out each morning for a week to check the wreckage are required to have a large bump of humor and an abundance of what is known as "philosophy." The farmer who finds his best cow in the church loft, the merchant who finds his old horse painted with green stripes and never finds his wagon at all, the widow who discovers her fence destroyed and her back steps carried away—these are the "saints" who, in modern practice, give their name to the day that follows Halloween.

Perhaps a statistical comparison of church

spires adorned with gates then and now would show that the Halloween celebrations are less intensive than when father was a boy. It is something to be glad for if it is true; but, if less intensive, they are more extensive—if there are fewer back fences raped for this holiday, there are more boys abroad on minor depredations, from ringing doorbells to promiscuous larceny. The mob spirit infects them. They go down the street—crash, smash, crash—breaking every milk bottle they can find. Nothing that is loose is safe. They act like youngsters bewitched.

The morning after such an antic celebration the telephone in the high-school office rings repeatedly as indignant citizens call to protest to the principal against the conduct of the youngsters. It matters not at all that the boys had set out from their homes, not the school, when they began their raid. Perhaps no individual member of the party was identified, and to find out where they were would be risking too much to call up certain parents to ask how their sons (and their daughters, perhaps) were permitted to engage in such wanton hooliganism. But the irate citizens may call the principal—every one recognizes the school as *Alma Mater* (foster mother) to all the wayward children, and they will ask the principal pointedly what he intends to do about it!

These same citizens might, on another occasion, claim that the high school has strayed too far from the "fundamentals," that it should give more time to plain learning. But the test of what they really believe concerning the function of the school in their community is how quickly they bring the teachers and the principal to task when the children flaunt certain social proprieties. Your child may have attained a rare mastery of irregular French verbs or quadratic equations, but he and the school he attends are judged less by this achievement than by how well he behaves himself in public places. Every school principal learns this very early in his experience, but there are only a few who come to see clearly that the

school subjects are of relatively little importance except as they provide purposes and occasions for young people to come together under wise supervision to learn how to behave.

Just how to divert the Halloween celebration into better channels is a problem in social engineering. It is time to give the gates back to the *poltergeists*, as they are called in Germany—the "racketing ghosts," bona fide ones. There may have been a day when lending them a hand was a good joke, but the joke wore off long ago. The young fellows who go on a rampage on Halloween do not know why they go, and the license they take is not in a jovial mood but in the rowdy, contemptible spirit of the street gang. It is impossible that such an experience can be anything but unwholesome for all the boys who participate.

Respect for the rights of others and for other persons' property is not effectively taught by precepts and abstract examples. It is not taught; it is learned. It is not learned in a lesson but in the daily business of living—of living with people who observe these rights themselves and expect every one else, as a matter of course, to do the same. You might say these things are learned automatically, intuitively. Yet it is art concealing science; for the professional personnel of the school is necessarily aware, keenly and constantly aware, of the conditions that have been set up there through which students will learn to prefer the socially approved ways of behaving. Only hack teachers really believe in their equations and their paradigms—the others always know which shell the pea is under.

Halloween is not the season for such teaching; it is rather a test of how well the students have learned, in their school, their homes, and other institutions, the right social attitudes concerning other persons' things. The youngster who does not sell out to the "custom," or the crowd, or the intoxicating promise of illicit adventure, but manages to see matters realistically through

all the foggy evenings of the Halloween season—he has passed the test.

There are sentimental old scribblers who will grow maudlin at any serious suggestion that the celebration of Halloween has got out of hand and is in need of repair. They will say that children should be allowed a few evenings of every year when they may run riot for the good of their psyche. But the community at large, especially citizens with gates and wagons, will take a less liberal view of the matter, and a more logical one.

Halloween is a folk holiday, of course, only incidentally related to the Church holy day of Allhallows or Hallowmas. A large part of the Halloween tradition we borrow from the Scotch, who had it before they had kirks. But a folk festival is not static; we shall go on making over its customs to suit the temper of each new generation. Perhaps the merchants will capture it, as they have

captured Christmas and most of our other holidays. Perhaps, when production and distribution are both pulling in the traces and we are not so much preoccupied with the material necessities for living, we may find a new interest in the age-old phenomena relating to life after death; and Halloween may be rededicated to this valid human interest. It is a valid interest, whether it yields scientific knowledge such as fills the annals of the learned Society for Psychical Research, or whether it yields nothing more than some new ghost stories of aesthetic merit comparable to those of F. Marion Crawford and a few others distinguished in the field. The Halloween tradition may develop along any one of many lines, but it is too precious to allow it to be carried off entirely by heavy-footed rowdyism.

J. C. D.

Making a Beginning in Adult Education

Paul L. Essert

EDITOR'S NOTE: Conventionally, the high school is a school for adolescents. But the social crisis has shown us the limitations of this definition—the adult-education movement requires the use of high-school buildings and equipment and the active interest of high-school teachers and principals. There is no other aspect of social progress that offers more promise for America than this movement, and schoolmen who can read this promise will find both inspiration and bedrock principles in this article by Paul L. Essert of the Emily Griffith Opportunity School at Denver.

SHE HAD some noticeable signs of that quality I think of as the teaching spark, which flashes now and then in some young, enthusiastic teacher, but has not yet burst into a brilliant, mounting flame. It became more noticeable when she said, "I'm not making much of a salary in my little mountain village and I love those nice people, but I would take even less money to come and work in a school like this. I'd love to work in adult education." "But," I said, "if you love these people in your little mountain village, why leave them? Do Denver people need your teaching more than others? Why not create and develop your own adult-education program?" She seemed surprised and a little frightened. "But all alone?" she said, "I'm no organizer. I'm just a teacher." "Yes," I replied, "just a teacher. But so was Cora Wilson Stewart who built her Moonlight Schools in Kentucky, so was Emily Griffith who built this great school in which you want to go to work. Just teachers, indeed, but great teachers with a vision and a conviction of need such as you have." She seemed to catch up the challenge for a moment, then the enthusiasm in her eyes was replaced by despair and her radiant face fell. "But how would *you* begin? In my community people think that schools are for children. How would you make a beginning

in adult education in a place like that?"

It was my turn to be challenged. Here was an opportunity to pass on what little experience I had to one who might make some use of it, and yet I had never really organized it in answer to that direct question. We sat there together for an hour talking of this problem, trying to free ourselves from vague and stereotyped terms and concepts of education, trying to make each step a guiding principle rather than a comprehensive rule, and I realized, as never before, how little I really knew of adult education that might not be completely fallacious in ten, five, or even two years from now.

Together, however, we worked out a few possible points of guidance by which she might chart her way over an interesting and thrilling adventure. After she had gone I jotted down some notes and, presuming that there may be others who have the vision and desire to pioneer an adventure into the field of public adult education, my mountain teacher friend and I pass them on to you.

We decided, in the first place, that if one was to have anything to contribute to the lives of adults, he must understand the lives of the adults with whom he lives. Books would be helpful; many of them would be indispensable, but the teacher of adults would have to do more than read books about people—he would have to read people. This he would have to do by intimate association with the prospective learner and with the environment in which he lives. Simply checking off a list of "interests" of people in a community is not enough; we must live close to the people who are to be reached by our program of adult education. There are many ways to do this, the least valuable of which is to have a research group make a study and hand it over to teachers who

never go back to the people to see what the research group meant. One of the most valuable, however, is for the prospective teacher to become a research student herself. In our Denver program of adult education under the FERA, several prospective teachers spent about six months making a survey of home and family and community life in several districts of the city. These teachers have become thoroughly acquainted with the problems and the capacities of their prospective students. Using their observations as the basis of their program, they are now going to work to provide a meaningful program of education. In developing their program they will call back on families with whom they are already well acquainted and propose classes and forum groups that will deal intimately with social and economic problems in what we like to call "neighborhood discussions" or "front-porch forums."

In the second place, we must not forget that many splendid agencies of adult education, both formal and informal, have been at work in the community for many years. The wise teacher of adults will not only familiarize himself with these agencies, but will encourage them, even enrich them with his time and constructive effort. This is particularly true in a town or city, but many fine adult educational activities are quietly at work in even the most remote communities. A few months ago, I visited a friend of mine who had retired from active teaching and was living the year around in a rather secluded and lonely mountain village. When I dropped into the little cabin, I found about ten women gathered there ostensibly knitting and sewing.

"These," said my friend, "are women of the mountains. Some of them have walked two or three miles today over lonely trails just to come here. You know, we talk about ways each of us has found to keep from being too lonely in our little cabins during the long winters." "Splendid," I said, "and what do you do to keep from being lonely?"

"Well, Miss B here sings all day. Sing for

us, won't you?" And she turned to a lady of sixty-five years, who sang for us—sang in a low, sweet voice, songs of the cities and plains. "Just to help us remember that it's a big world," she said. Then my friend turned to another. "This is Miss D. She writes poetry. She has one today about the wild rose that grows so generously here. Will you read it, Miss D?" And this brave mountaineer gave me a new picture of the red seed pod of the mountain rose—"gypsy beads," she called them. On around the group she went; each woman had some virtue, some capacity that this great teacher had helped uncover and was making radiantly lustrous. One was a great mother, another wrote fascinating studies of ants and birds, and another was a fine cook.

To me, this was a great school of adults, quietly and unostentatiously building a cultural monument. What a mistake it would be for a builder of adult education in this community to disregard this work and try to create something new and destructive. One simply marvels at the vast field of simple but effective adult education that is at work in any community. There are reading groups, civic clubs, apprenticeship training programs, dramatic, music, and art groups, and many others. In a recent book,¹ Mr. Cartwright, Director of the American Association for Adult Education, estimates that 22,000,000 people are taking advantage of them. In developing programs of adult education, one should begin with these, encourage them, enrich them with suggestions, personnel, equipment, and opportunities for expansion.

Another thing that my friend and I agreed was worth trying was this: instead of waiting for the student to *come* to the teacher, it would often be necessary for the teacher to take his culture to the learner. In other words, something of the missionary spirit was going to be necessary. I have read the following letter many times during the

¹ M. A. Cartwright, *Ten Years of Adult Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1935), xiv+220 pages.

past year because it was so encouraging to me. (The italics are mine.)

To the Chairman of the County Council of Emergency Education

Dear Sir:

I am a woman who lives alone and I have very little company. I wanted to learn how to make things for my home, but *I didn't want to attend class because I felt lost in a crowd. My teacher came to my house and got me started.* I think she purposely waited until I got used to her before she insisted that I come to the arts and handicraft class. *She makes everybody feel that they aren't too dumb to learn.*

I learned to do much more than I expected to learn and *I know how to feel comfortable in a crowd.*

Here a wise teacher of adults, realizing that there are many fears and complex reactions in any community about going to school, took her class out to the learner. A business man once told me that it took him three years to work up nerve enough to start to school at Opportunity School, because he thought his friends would think he was admitting his ignorance. A mother of three children, graduates of Denver high schools, had to brave the storms of resentment from not only her own family but her neighbors, before she could complete, in our high-school department, a high-school education prematurely suspended years ago.

There are many reasons, some of which we often cannot thoroughly understand, why people will not take advantage of our offering in adult education, even when it is right next door to them. Very often social and psychological barriers must be broken down for them before they can get out on the open course of learning. Only the crusading teacher, yet one with ears and eyes for the delicate and sensitive problems of people, can overcome these barriers.

But probably all of these things which we have been talking about are very likely to follow if the teacher himself is a living example of continuous growth. The most important question with me in interviewing an applicant for work in adult education is: Is

this teacher growing? Of course, there are other considerations but when I have satisfied myself on this question, I am ready to regard the applicant as a potentially valuable teacher in adult education. There is one common characteristic of all teachers who are weak or have failed in adult education, as I have observed them: They are through growing. They do not believe in adult education for themselves but are trying to convince others of its values. The successful adult-education teacher must begin by educating himself.

As we discussed this point, I walked with my friend of the mountain school to the desk of Mrs. Miller, our assistant principal, who has been a successful adult-education builder for the past twenty years, sharing the vision of the school with the founders and meeting its many problems. We talked for a while together, the three of us, of mountains, of gentle Mexicans, of books, and of youth. In every field Mrs. Miller seemed to be more of an eager student, although in some of the topics of conversation many would call her an authority. As we walked away, I caught the inspiration of the growing teacher upon youth, when our young visitor said, "I hope I am as beautiful and as interesting when I have taught forty years."

The real test of one who is growing is whether he is really growing or just stretching. In other words, is he growing for the fun of it, because he can't help it, or is he doing it for some ulterior motive? To get credit, to get a job, and to make advancement are, of course, often the initial motives, after which a desire for true learning begins. But as far as the teacher of adults is concerned, it must go on *con amore*—for the love of doing it. I know a teacher who has traveled about Southwestern United States a bit. She is not a wide traveler, but in what distance she has gone, she has had her eyes, ears, and heart open. She is so filled with the beauty, color, and romance of the Southwest that no matter what subject she teaches it filters in. The result, of course, is a group

of students who become more alert and observing, even on a trip between Denver and the nearest mountain park. This teacher learns *con amore*, and teaches others to do the same. With this kind of adult teacher we are bound to progress toward a real culture.

Finally, in building any program of adult education, we must plan from the outset to evaluate our work in terms of how our work makes a difference in the way an individual or the community lives. It is dangerous to talk to young teachers about evaluation, unless we make it clear that we are not referring particularly to tests and statistics. What we are interested in is the new opportunities that make apparent to the learner the growing sense on his part that he is finding his capacities, and in the reflection of his discovery upon the life of the community.

Once, some years ago, two young men came to this school to make a survey of it in preparation of a thesis toward their doctorates. Miss Griffith characteristically gave them her time and showed them about the school. In almost every classroom she pointed out a story of a human development resulting from the work. The young men finally came back to her desk and said, "Now, Miss Griffith, can you show us your records?" "What records would you like to see?" Miss Griffith asked them. "Oh, follow-up records, statistics showing the justification for a school of this kind." Miss Griffith was surprised, of course, for that was what she had been trying to show them for the past hour. Nevertheless, she went to a teacher who had kept letters received from

students, employers, mothers, and many others. There were hundreds of these in which the writer was, in his own way, trying to tell the instructor what difference the training he had received had made in his life. Look at this one, for example:

I was compelled to quit school after finishing the eighth grade of grammar school. Many times I have tried buying books in an attempt at a self-help education, but seemed to make little progress.

. . . When advised that I could attend night classes, I gladly enrolled. With your kind help and instruction, I feel I have made a real start toward my great ambition, which is to study law.

Two large suitcases of letters of this kind were brought to the thesis students. They read the first one apparently as a matter of duty, the second one somewhat more thoroughly. After reading the third one, however, they sat for two hours reading letter after letter, because of their vital message of evaluation.

Facts are facts, whether they come in the form of statistics or in life stories of human experiences. The adult-education teacher must learn to read both.

My visitor left with what she called an idea of what she might do even in a mountain village. Some day I think I shall hear about the work of a great teacher in that village. She had the personal qualities of a great pioneer. Perhaps, by studying her people, by enriching the present adult-education agencies with enthusiasm and study, by taking education to the learner who has reasons for not going to school, by beginning to educate herself *con amore*, and by evaluating her job in terms of human behavior, something fine will come out of it all.

The Democratic Tradition in American Education

Herman H. Horne

EDITOR'S NOTE: *There is hardly a county in the United States where there is not at least one teacher who has sat at the feet of Professor Horne. The address that follows was delivered March 8, 1935, as a featured item of the Eleventh Annual Junior High School Conference at New York University. Those of New York University who heard the address delivered will hear again in these lines the clear, resonant tones, of the speaker's voice, charged with sincere emotion, communicating eloquently an abiding faith in one of the most highly refined ideals, and one of the most unstable, that men have ever conceived—democracy. What will be left to defend in America if this ideal is ever bartered for some gilded expedient? What do we cherish more? What is more worth defending?*

IN THESE DAYS of social change the following poem of Josephine Johnson very well represents two possible attitudes we may take:

PRELUDE

Caught in the too-tight skin in the too-tight shell,
The snake, the locust, the crab—
Do they shed them with anguish,
Struggle,
Bleed?
Emerge spent with conflict, soft with pain?

Or is the shedding of the old husk
A triumph,
With no regret for the known, the familiar—
Only a sense of power, of growth, of a boundless
future
Unshackled, unrestrained!

Is the theme of democracy trite to us? But it is so unpractised still. It is not yet really a "tradition"; just still a promise and a hope.

There is special need at this time to reconsider the issues of democracy in American life. Its meaning is expanding from the political to the social and the industrial. Abroad democracy is retreating before dictators who make up the minds of their people for them. Democracy remains a living force only in

France, Scandinavia, the British Commonwealth of Nations, and the United States. At home patrons of private schools are advocating the cutting of budgets for public schools. There is an undemocratic section of the public press breeding suspicion and hate. There is an undemocratic use of the radio by pressure groups. There is an undemocratic type of senatorial leadership. Our Government is doing as other governments in pursuing a policy of economic nationalism. A recent letter from the American Ambassador to Germany says: "What is coming one cannot tell, but I think our whole intellectual life is going to change. We need five or six real universities. The high schools are in greatest need, if our people are ever to know the world we live in."

The main principles underlying the American system of public education are these six:

1. Free education, without tuition
2. Universal education, for girls and boys of all the people
3. Publicly supported, by taxation of citizens
4. Publicly controlled, by the State
5. Compulsory, now in most States till the age of sixteen
6. Nonsectarian, with separation of church and state

At the same time the right of private and denominational schools to exist is recognized.

Underneath these principles there is a great philosophy: the equal rights of man, the common man can think, a society of educated common men can govern itself. For this philosophy we are indebted to Thomas Jefferson, Rousseau, and the French Revolution.

Yet our system of public education is a field of wheat with many tares, a giant so

large that he is never perfectly well all over, a large lump not all leavened.

The old obstacles to a democratic system of public education still survive in various forms. They are these: an aristocratic society; the notion that the support of schools is not a legitimate responsibility of the state; that education is a matter for the family, the church, and the individual to provide; that the masses do not deserve or need education beyond the rudiments; that free education is only for the poor; that public education is public charity. Then too those who have profited by the old order oppose the new. And there is social inertia opposing any change.

James Truslow Adams has given us the *Epic of America*. Of this larger theme, the epic of American education is one phase. There may be discerned four stages in the epic of American education.

- I. Before daybreak, till 1776
- II. "The dawn's early light," till 1825
- III. Sunrise, till 1860
- IV. Morning, till now

The high noon of democracy in America or in American education has not yet been reached. Will there be an afternoon and a sunset, or will democracy in America have a perpetual day? It depends in part upon how we bear ourselves in this generation. Some years ago President Eliot of Harvard wrote an article in *The Atlantic Monthly* on "Some Reasons Why the American Republic May Endure."

BEFORE DAYBREAK

The tradition of democracy in American education did not come to us from Mother England. She herself had no public support and control of education till 1870. Her society in our Colonial days was aristocratic. The masses were born to obey, not to govern. The superiors were privileged beings. There was an absolute distinction between the high and the low. Learning among the masses would lead to disobedience, would threaten

the social order. Teachers were licensed by church authorities.

About 1670 Governor Berkeley of Virginia was asked what kind of education existed in the colonies. He made a reply since famous:

The same course that is taken in England out of towns; every man according to his ability instructing his children. . . . I thank God there are no free schools, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years [He didn't]; for learning has brought disobedience, and heresy, and sects into the world.

Harvard College was founded in 1636. It is the oldest institution of learning in America, except the Boston Latin School, founded in 1635, celebrating its tercentenary this year. Until 1772, the names of students at Harvard were not listed alphabetically but aristocratically, to indicate the social rank and wealth of the family. The sons of trustees and benefactors were especially favored. Places were graded in classroom and chapel. Punishments of the well-to-do were lighter than on the inferior. The more aristocratic had the best living quarters. They helped themselves first at the table. Democracy was disliked socially and politically. The phrase was "filthy" democrats. Whatever democracy was implicit in the Mayflower compact, the church and town covenants, it did not affect the horrible lot of a debtor in a filthy prison, the poor, the unfortunate, the blind, and the insane. No right as yet was recognized to life, to liberty, and to the pursuit of happiness. "The people" were a privileged class with rights rooted in property.

"THE DAWN'S EARLY LIGHT"

This light shines in the views of our nation's leaders and in the ordinance for the Government of the Northwest Territory. Our Federal Constitution is silent on the subject of education. There was not much interest in education as an activity of the State. This was something new. The State constitutional provisions for education are vague.

The strongest supporter of education as an activity of the State was Thomas Jefferson. He called to Virginia, but Virginia did not respond. In his preamble to the bill for public schools in Virginia (1779), he urged that the most effectual means of preventing the perversion of power into tyranny is through the illumination "of the people at large"; that the public welfare depends on the education of the people without regard to "wealth, birth, or other accidental condition or circumstance."

Washington in his first message to Congress wrote:

There is nothing which can better deserve your patronage than the promotion of science and literature. Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness.

And in his Farewell Address, he said:

In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion be enlightened.

John Jay, our first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, referred to knowledge as "the soul of a Republic."

James Madison said:

Popular government without popular information or the means of acquiring it is the first step toward a farce or a tragedy or perhaps both.

John Adams wrote:

Laws for the liberal education of youth, especially of the lower classes of people, are so extremely wise and useful that . . . no expense for this purpose would be thought extravagant.

And Tom Paine held in his *Rights of Man* that in a properly governed nation none should be permitted to go uninstructed.

The North West Ordinance of Congress (1787), in referring to the States later to be formed out of this domain, said:

Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged.

These were the foregleams of a system of democratic education to be ushered in during the next period.

SUNRISE

This is the period of "the great awakening." As Thomas Jefferson is the central figure in the preceding period, so is Horace Mann in this.

The new forces were economic, industrial, political, religious, and humanitarian. It is the era of public-school societies, the infant school movement, monitorial school, Sunday schools, improved transportation and communication, the growth of cities, the rise of the factory system, the awakening of a class consciousness among workers, the westward migration, and the influence of the frontier. There were fewer death penalties, slavery was being opposed, there were peace movements, temperance movements, and religious revivals. The election of Andrew Jackson marked an epoch. He was the frontier type. He said: "I have confidence in the virtue and good sense of the people."

Governor Clinton held in 1826 that "the encouragement of education is the first duty of a government."

Abraham Lincoln, a young candidate for representative in Illinois, advocated education as "the most important subject which we as a people can be engaged in." He thought that "every man" should receive at least a moderate education so as to read history and "duly appreciate the value of our free institutions."

And Daniel Webster, speaking in Indiana, said:

Education to accomplish the ends of good government should be universally diffused. Open the doors of the school houses to all the children of the land. On the diffusion of education among the people rests the preservation and perpetuation of our Free Institutions.

Horace Mann performed Herculean labors in Massachusetts. He regarded the public-school system as the greatest blessing of a beneficent providence upon suffering humanity. He won out in his controversy with the Boston schoolmasters. In his own language, he was "ashamed to die until he had won some victory for humanity."

The work of Mann was ably supported by leaders in other sections, Henry Barnard, Thaddeus Stevens, Thomas H. Burrowes, A. D. Murphy, C. H. Wiley, Caleb Mills, Samuel Lewis, Samuel Galloway, R. J. Breckenridge, and Ninian Edwards. The public support of education was secured. The rate bills, or levies against parents to supplement school revenues, were abolished in Pennsylvania in 1834, in New York in 1867, and in New Jersey in 1871.

THE MORNING OF DEMOCRACY

Since the Civil War the progress in developing a democratic system of public education has been greatest. During this period the high-school movement had almost replaced the old academies and since the turn of the century the new junior-high-school movement has arisen to meet the needs of early adolescents.

The great and rapid progress of this period is due to a great number of influences, including the abolition of slavery, the growth of the population, the improvements in agriculture and transportation, the scientific revolution due to the work of Darwin, the influence of Huxley, Spencer, and Eliot, the growth of urban centers, the improved status of woman, the influence of Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, and Dewey on the materials and methods of education, the new psychology of Hall, James, Cattell, and Thorndike, and the professional study of education by Monroe and others.

In 1848 a woman's rights convention in Seneca Falls, New York, declared "all men and women are created equal," and demanded equal opportunities in education, politics, industry, and before the law. Both the press and the pulpit laughed and condemned. But in 1920 the Nineteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution, granting woman suffrage, was ratified.

During the two decades, 1890-1910, men in colleges and universities increased 214 per cent; women in women's colleges increased 348 per cent; women in coeducational insti-

tutions increased 438 per cent. The record does not indicate why women prefer coeducational institutions. It is in part doubtless due to the fact that they want not only equal but the same education as men.

But there are unwon victories as yet for the democratic tradition in American education. The rivulet of the mountain beginning at the close of the eighteenth century with Jefferson has become the broad river of the valley, but there are still unirrigated deserts. Territories still unconquered by the democratic spirit are adult education, rural education, adolescent education till eighteen, Negro education, and the education of the foreign-born, of defectives, and delinquents.

Concerning the "new America," Dr. Ned Dearborn, a leader in the field of adult education, has said that it "will consist of a new economic structure; the functions of government will be increased in number and kind with new emphases; material values will be subordinated to cultural; and the conflicts between capitalism and communism, democracy and fascism, wealth and poverty, nationalism and internationalism, war and peace, and between individualism and socialism will be destroyed by the forces of intelligence that will harmonize individual rights and the common good. This will not come about in our generation, but it will come about with a speed unprecedented in evolutionary social changes. Its realization will be dependent upon the media and kinds of education available to our citizens. One kind, the new adult education, is a necessity for a 'new America'."

The problems of civic democracy cannot be solved on the basis of elementary education alone. The full high-school period is required for our young citizens to learn the kind of world we live in. They are not needed as workers. They will be sorely needed as leaven in the new democracy.

Rural education lacks its full share of equality in educational opportunity. There is inequality between rural and urban districts, between poor and rich sections of the same

State, and between poor and rich States. The twelve richest States are three times as able to educate their children as the twelve poorest States. The richest State in the Union is six times as able to educate its children as the poorest. This inequality of educational opportunity between States suggests the need of Federal aid to the poorer States. The wealthiest portion of a State may be thirty-five times as able to educate its children as the poorest. Local taxation accounts for more than two thirds of the public educational revenues in three fourths of our States. Only two or three States derive as much as half their school funds from the State. This localism in taxation is responsible for much educational inequality in our country. Within a State the State itself should equalize educational opportunity; between States the National Government should do it.

An unwon battle for democracy is the education of the Negro. Democracy was mocked by slavery; it was no less a mockery under reconstruction. The Negro has been an American citizen since 1868. In 1920 Negro illiteracy was 23 per cent; in five States it was 29 to 38 per cent. The Negro constitutes one tenth of our population but four tenths of our problem of illiteracy.

There are five million illiterates in our country. We have more illiterates than Japan, England, Scotland, France, Holland, Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland. The democratic war on illiteracy must go on to victory, though literacy is no synonym for education. There are over a million children in our country not in school of any kind.

There is race prejudice in *our* country, much race prejudice. It is undemocratic, and may be cruel. Smite it hip and thigh! There is class distinction in our country, based now on wealth, now on social position, now on vested rights and privileges. When it denies opportunity to a lower class, it is undemocratic, unjust. Smite it with all your might!

There is just now a growing nationalistic

urge in our country. We are even trying out nationalism in our economic order. It is fatuous. The world needs and in time will have internationalism. Nations need to understand, sympathize, and coöperate with each other. Let's sublimate nationalism! Internationalism may be a far-away Utopia, but it is written in the stars that it will be realized. Meantime, let's work for it! Let's sing it! Here is a stanza to be added to our national hymn "America" which I have written for our school children to sing:

Father of every race
Giver of every grace
Hear as we pray:
Let every land be free
May all men brothers be
All nations honor thee
Now and for aye.

Just now in our country some fourteen States are requiring teachers to swear loyalty to the Constitution. It is an indignity, if they compel you, obey, swear, and then stand on your constitutional guarantees, including "freedom of speech."

Face the controversial issues. Cover up nothing. Let the contending economic theories express themselves. Democracy does not require the poor support of tyranny. Don't *teach* any subversive doctrine but *study* them all! Let pupils participate in the life of the school. Grant them a measure of self-government and guide them in the process. They can best become citizens in a democracy when the schools are democratic. Let the school be a laboratory in social living. Teach pupils to think and how to think. Tell them undogmatically what you think. But do not tell them *what they must think*, under penalty of some kind. Let the life situations motivate the work of the school. All the currents of social and natural and world living should flow through the school. Let there be a maximum of self-expression, consistent with school welfare, and a minimum of coercion. Let the pupils do some of the talking. Let them "talk" so long as they talk with reason and courtesy. Do the same yourself.

Train followers! Train coöperators! Not all can be leaders. It is the team that wins. Study, have convictions, speak out, not like a demagogue, but as a thinker! Every democratic advance has been won only by a hard struggle, even by sacrificial labor. What shall we do? Remember that democracy in education is not identical education for all but suitable education for each. Note the undemocratic thing next at hand. It may be in ourselves. Hit it, as Lincoln did slavery, and hit it hard!

The democratic tradition in America! Let's make it a fact, a political fact, a social

fact, an industrial fact, and, I dare add, an international fact.

Is public education, as now organized and administered in America, fitting youth to meet the problems of the day? In a measure, yes; adequately, no. The situation is improving, students are becoming more serious and thoughtful. But as yet the economic, the social, the national issues are not being fully and frankly faced, and suitable social action by the schools is not being taken. The ills of our democracy require neither fascism nor communism but more and better democracy!

Supervision in Secondary Education

Thomas H. Briggs

Editor's Note: Supervision in the secondary schools will hardly bear comparison with that in the elementary schools. At least, this is so generally conceded that all of us who supervise high-school teachers are properly self-conscious, occasionally self-critical. Professor Briggs of Teachers College, Columbia University, offers herewith his report of an illuminating investigation. It is written with the penetrating insight characteristic of all his contributions, and the editors are pleased to publish what is certain to be widely acknowledged as an important article in the field of educational supervision.

THIRTY-FOUR principals of secondary schools in eighteen different States were kind enough at my request to send me the names of several of their teachers who had also had experience in elementary schools, and 116 of these teachers courteously furnished information regarding themselves and their experiences with supervision. This article is a report of their responses.

Of these 116 teachers the range of experience was great, from forty-eight years to one. The median length of service was twenty years, with a probable error of 8.5. The median length of their experience in elementary schools was about five years, and in public high schools nearly twelve years. Thirty-four had taught in high schools for sixteen years or more, and 22 for four years or fewer. Consequently these teachers, many of whom had served in several different schools, may be considered to have had adequate experience on which to base the requested replies.

SUPERVISION IN ELEMENTARY AND IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The first topic on which information was sought was the differences that exist in supervision in elementary and in secondary schools. Inasmuch as the replies followed no set form, they have been difficult to tabulate. The figures given should not be considered

as a basis for percentages, since far from all mentioned the same items. But they may fairly be considered indicative of what practice is, and many of them are illuminating and suggestive. Sixteen stated that they had had no supervision whatever in elementary schools, and eleven that they had had none in secondary schools. From a reading of all the replies, seventeen not answering this question at all, a conclusion may be drawn that there has been little if any supervision of a number of the others. One writes, "While I have taught in —High School under ten principals no one has ever made a comment to me respecting my work. The head of the department is very considerate, but she has refrained from comment." Sixteen stated that they had received no help whatsoever from such supervision as they had in high schools, and five that they had more supervision in the lower than in the upper schools. None reported the reverse.

Eleven teachers reported that the supervision in the two types of schools was essentially the same. A surprising and encouraging report is that the supervision in the secondary schools was superior in thirty-six cases and inferior in only seven. Pleasure in these figures may be tempered, however, when the criteria of judgment are considered. Several of the majority group definitely stated that the high-school supervision was superior because it was less detailed, less restrictive, and less active; others ranked it higher because it dealt with more important and less with trivial or mechanical matters. Following is a pertinent quotation from one of the letters: "In high-school the supervision has been regular and constructive. My principal does not concern herself with comments upon mechanical details (even shades, neat penmanship, and tidy desk, for example) but devotes her attention to the big things—motivation, scholarship,

methods, classroom atmosphere. She is wise enough to ignore those errors arising from the teacher's self-consciousness under observation, a fine quality in a supervisor."

Three other replies on this topic are illuminating. The second is from a city with a large corps of supervisors.

My five years in grade school were spent in a system where supervision had been worked out on an elaborate scale. Emphasis on discipline, on one proper way of sitting, standing, marching, on certain ways of teaching spelling or reading or composition was marked. The letter of the supervisor's law rather than the spirit made the young teacher's life a rather trying one. Supervision seemed painfully direct and efficient. Perhaps only because the disciplining of the first five years had been so thorough and to so large a degree effective was the greater freedom in high school such a joy. Supervision here has been largely indirect, but it is because the need of direct supervision has decreased with experience and with the growing confidence in asking for advice and help.

In eleven elementary schools I had twelve supervisors, all of whom I liked personally, but I cannot say that I received any help from them. All they ever did was to interrupt my classes and waste time.

The differences between supervision in the elementary and high schools are the differences between much and none. I had the luck to teach under two elementary- and one junior-high-school principal who had "the gift." One could always be sure of some reaction to one's performance when teaching under the observation of these men. The elementary-school principals were critical of method and manner; the junior-high-school principal was primarily concerned with the material presented, though of course not indifferent to the manner. One undoubtedly leads a calmer life in the senior high school quite undisturbed by impetuous principals who expect one to have reasons for what and how one carries on. So far as I can determine, senior-high-school principals seem to expect a teacher, even a young teacher, to be a finished product as to methods and to have material selected and evaluated, and so to conduct classes successfully without assistance or criticisms. I am not unmindful that the pacifist program of high-school supervision may be attributed to a wary reluctance on the part of the principal to enter into controversy with a teacher who may know more about the subject matter than he does, my observation leading me to believe that emphasis in high-school is primarily on matter,

method being considered the concern of the elementary-school teacher. It seems to me that if I were a principal and quite innocent of knowledge of chemistry, say, I should go into a chemistry classroom and see whether the teacher could make me understand his instruction. If he could not, then I might classify him as a chemist, but certainly not as a teacher.

Five respondents state that in the high-school the emphasis is much more on subject matter than on method. One asserts that on the higher level this subject-matter interest makes against concern with the work of the whole school, with a large program of rounded education. Fourteen think that the supervision is more indirect than in the grades, but four hold the opposite opinion.

"Evidently," writes a woman of long experience, "if a high-school teacher is successful, she is left to exercise her own judgment and to pursue her own way without suggestions." This practice is contrary to my belief that the successful teacher furnishes the most fertile possibilities for superior, constructive supervision. That the ability to furnish this kind is sometimes lacking is evidenced by another teacher, who writes, "As soon as I gained permanent tenure, most of the supervision became perfunctory."

A few other quotations showing skill in high-school supervision conclude this section. "The supervision in — has been exceedingly helpful since — became principal. He has built up some strength out of weakness in the matter particularly of the assignment of subject matter and general, also specific, methods of attack. He has also been responsible for much reorganization of subject matter." "The supervision in high-school has been the kind that gave encouragement at times and helpful suggestions about certain weak points. Too often visits are made to classes without any subsequent comment whatever. . . I believe that more money should be spent to employ efficient teachers instead of spending so much on supervision." (These two statements came from the same city, which employs no special

supervisors in its high school.) A third: "I am quite sure that there is nothing more discouraging than criticism which destroys rather than builds confidence." And a final quotation that supplements the preceding: "One principal was especially helpful by handing me magazines and asking for my opinion on certain articles. He usually took the opposite side in the discussion afterward, and when I convinced him of a good point he emphasized and enlarged upon it. He had the skill to give his teachers courage and faith in their abilities."

MEANS OF SUPERVISION

The respondents were asked to rank in the order of helpfulness four commonly used means of supervision: teachers' meetings, personal conferences, suggested readings, and directed visiting to observe the work of other teachers.

The ranking of teachers' meetings does not deviate materially from chance, being 18.5, 28.1, 28.1, and 25.4. That this potent instrument of supervision is not used so as to be recognized by teachers as of great helpfulness implies a serious criticism of the supervising principal. It is quite consistent, however, with reports in other studies of common practices in teachers' meetings. One teacher volunteered, "We got nothing from general teachers' meetings of course." And another wrote, "They don't help. The principal too often makes up reasons for meeting instead of calling a meeting for a reason." The older teachers ranked general meetings slightly higher than did the younger ones.

Personal conferences are much more highly esteemed, being ranked first by 59.7 per cent of all respondents, and last by only 6.1 per cent. Several volunteered the statement that they had had only a few, however, and desired more. The estimation of the value of personal conferences fell steadily with the length of experience of the teachers. Those who had taught three years or fewer ranked them first; those who had taught eight years or more ranked them third.

Suggested readings as a means of supervision are not recognized as of high value. Nine per cent of the respondents rank them first, and of the remainder about the same number assign them to the other three positions. Three teachers say that they never had any readings suggested by their principals, and one critically writes that "readings were never specific enough to tell me anything I didn't know already." Two other teachers made no response, suggesting that they had no experience of this kind. In marked contrast to this is the statement previously quoted in this article telling how one principal effectively used professional articles in magazines to build up his teachers.

Directed visiting to observe the work of other teachers is not recognized as of great value in supervision, the largest percentage of those rating (33.7) ranking it fourth in helpfulness. Fourteen stated that they had never been directed or permitted in school time to observe the work of other teachers. The modal rank by beginning teachers was third; by those with more experience it was fourth. Showing that there are distinct possibilities in this means of supervision is the fact that seventeen rank it first in value.

DISTRIBUTION OF EMPHASIS

The 116 teachers were asked to assign percentages indicating the distribution of the supervision that they had had in secondary schools to six matters. Ninety-one did so. The median percentages, the ranges, and the numbers reporting no supervision of these kinds are presented in table I.

TABLE I

	Median	Range	No Super- vision
Improvement of subject mat- ter	18.33	0-80	17
Teaching materials	14.48	0-60	5
General methods	21.18	0-95	12
Special methods	16.66	0-65	13
Administration and econ- omy	14.09	0-90	11
Discipline	7.71	0-60	33

This table reveals a remarkable variation in emphasis; this is more significant than the median percentages reported. It is possible, of course, that the needs in the several schools determined the amount of emphasis given by each supervising principal; but it is impossible to escape the suggestion that there is no commonly accepted recognition of relative values and, consequently, there is no effective distribution of effort. One cannot overlook the significance of the fact that 23 per cent of the teachers reported that none of the six matters had been touched upon in the supervision that they had received. The range of percentages of neglect is from five per cent (to teaching materials) to 33 per cent (to discipline).

DEVELOPING STRENGTHS OR OVERCOMING WEAKNESSES

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether supervision in high schools had been concerned more with building up strengths, developing the embryos of unusual possibilities, or with remedying weaknesses of teaching. Seven teachers replied that they had had no supervision; eight made no answer; and three stated that the effort had been equivalent. Of the remaining, 68.4 per cent stated that the supervisor had primarily attempted to build up their promising elements of strength. This is distinctly gratifying, for while it is often necessary to help a teacher, especially in the early part of his experience, to remedy some weakness of teaching, it ought to be obvious that better results are achievable when the supervision primarily attempts to find those things that each teacher does exceptionally well and then to develop them into outstanding virtues. A school never becomes notable for having teachers merely without weaknesses. It becomes great only when its teachers are great, even though irregular, in their strengths. When a teacher is strong in one phase of his work, he can then be more easily helped to eradicate his faults.

One teacher writes, "Here my supervision

is intelligent and directed toward building up my strengths. It is also sympathetic and interested. Incidentally, this is the first school where I have been satisfied. I prefer intelligent supervision to being let alone."

In studying all the returns one cannot but be struck with the contradictory reports from the same schools. One teacher reports that the principal has put great emphasis on one detail, has chiefly used one means of supervision, or has predominantly attempted to develop embryonic virtues, while another teacher in the same school makes a different report of the activities of the same principal. If this is the result of imperfect observation or of faulty reporting, it of course invalidates the results here presented. If, on the other hand, it means that the principals have attempted supervision according to the needs of the individual teachers, it is distinctly good. Omitting the teachers who gave equivocal or no answers to the question under consideration, we find that in 53.8 per cent of the schools the principals are reported by some teachers to attempt to remedy weaknesses and by others to be concerned with building up strengths. In 10.3 per cent of the schools the teachers are unanimous in reporting that the supervisory effort is toward the former, while in 35.9 per cent of the schools it is toward the latter.

THE EFFECT ON INDIVIDUALITY

It is sometimes asserted that supervision may be bad in that it hampers the individuality of the teacher, preventing him from experimenting and developing unusual materials or methods of presentation. Of these 116 teachers, 82.3 per cent do not think that in their own experiences it has had this effect, and an additional 4.4 per cent report that they have been hampered in ways that should be judged insignificant or at least unimportant. These figures should be interpreted, however, only in light of the repeated statements, which may represent the facts in the cases of many who made none, that there had been no supervision at all or

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that it had been of such nature as to have little possibility of hampering the ingenious or the irregular. One teacher wrote, "My supervisor's theory is: A teacher does her work best when she does it in her own way; and if her way is a poor one, she is discharged. Consequently he does not interfere with her work."

A number of volunteered statements, some of them especially pertinent to this topic and others of general interest, are listed below.

1. The utmost freedom has been granted in this high school to the development of desirable means in teaching. Suggestions are always considered and discussed, and reasonable suggestions are given a trial.

2. Supervision challenges one to better effort. We don't always agree, but I have secured definite and valuable aid from it.

3. Indefinite knowledge as to the extent of my authority, that is, just how far I should and could go in certain lines, has hampered me. I think ideal supervision would not permit this condition to exist.

4. Whether or not one's individuality is hampered depends on the supervision. I think of two supervisors who were entirely different, the one allowing me to use my judgment on all matters, but at the same time keeping in close touch with what I was doing and offering constructive suggestions, the other narrowing me to details so that I felt pinned down and hampered in a great many things. I never knew whether by taking the initiative I was doing the right thing or whether

the supervisor would object. I felt that he paid too much attention to trifles and this tends to narrow a teacher, certainly.

5. The first half of my period of teaching was dominated by my supervisor. I did not realize my abilities until I was given a chance to experiment and do things in my own way.

6. The physical difficulties—big, noisy building, crowded classes, heavy courses of study, clerical details, outside activities—tend to send us along the line of least resistance and to urge us to save ourselves, to develop a protective tissue. This attitude is not conducive to individuality in teaching or to exploratory ventures in the art.

7. The old destructive supervision was awful and unfitted the teacher, but the present constructive and encouraging criticism is highly helpful.

8. Supervisory visits cause pupils to be unnatural, either unusually timid or bold, and the teacher to assume a dramatic pose to impress the supervisor.

9. At the beginning of my career I was subjected to rigid discipline by the head of my department. The man knew how to teach German and his results were remarkable, but he had the reputation of not being able to keep teachers in his department; he treated them so severely. The man nearly killed me with supervision, example, direction, but I owe everything today to him. I hated him, but "stuck" because I felt he had something fine. I remained with him five years, and we became fast friends. Today I teach according to his ideas, with some changes. He taught through inspiring terror; I give the boys and girls fun—and get just as good results as he did—using methods similar to his. No day goes by but that I realize what I owe to his supervision. But he nearly drove me mad.

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Fascism, Liberalism, and Individuality in Italy

Philip W. L. Cox

EDITOR'S NOTE: In 1934 Professor Cox, head of the department of secondary education at New York University, spent more than six months of his sabbatical leave abroad studying new educational trends. He spent more time in Italy than in any other country, and the following article is his critical evaluation of some of the Fascist educational policies. If he finds that the Black Shirts are not so black as they are painted, it is out of no Pollyanna motive but rather in the spirit of the old Scotch dame who could find some good even in the Devil. While he finds many things to commend in Il Duce's program, Dr. Cox, at the latest report, had not been decorated for his devotion to the Fascist cause.

MEN OF intelligence and good will the world over envision social states to be wrought out that are not unlike in essentials. Philosophers and theoreticians of fascism and communism and democracy may differ sharply in their assumptions regarding the potential directive power of the common man and regarding the degree of coercion of the common man that it is necessary or justifiable to use in order to realize the states they envision.

In each of their ideal states, however, the security and general welfare of every citizen are of fundamental importance; class distinctions based on birth or wealth are abolished; production and distribution are planned in terms of a social economy rather than for the profit of exploiters; "new men" are to develop under the improved social and physical conditions; and from each citizen the new society expects service according to his ability, and thus it expects to satisfy the legitimate needs of everybody. Such are the hopes of communists, of fascists, and of democrats.

Of the fascist countries that I visited while on sabbatical leave (1934) I made an extended stay only in Italy, influenced largely

by the belief that conditions in Austria and Germany were so unstable that no reasonable judgment of fascism's positive program could be made in those countries. It was difficult to talk quietly with a Christian Socialist or a Nazi about tolerance and individuality while the streets were full of soldiers and hundreds of socialists had recently been killed, or imprisoned, or were "missing."

Italy was, however, already in its twelfth year under fascism. There had been time for leaders of the coup d'etat whose contribution to the revolution consisted merely of boldness and dramatic acts to eliminate themselves by their inability to fulfil the somber roles of planning and creating, and to subordinate themselves more or less gracefully to newer and less dramatic men who found places in education and road building and finance and transportation. With the subordination of many of the more violent leaders and the emergence of more constructive measures, room had been found in the program for many competent men from the pre-fascist era.

In the central positions in Rome, one finds many relatively young men, Fascists, who must have been mere boys at the time of the famous march on Rome. They are active, vigorous, competent, and self-assured. They combine personal ambition, intense devotion to the objectives of the Fascist Revolution, a desire for the speedy accomplishment of the specific measures in which they are interested, an impatience with all cautious or conciliatory suggestion, and a deprecatory attitude toward the earlier reforms of *Fascismo*—all of these attitudes are typical of energetic youth.

There remain, however, at Rome and at

Florence, Naples, Palermo, and other such cities, many liberals of long experience who occupy important positions. Among these are Alessandro Marcucci, supervisor of the schools of the *Agro Romano*, and Ernesto Codignola, director of the *Istituto Superiore di Magistero* in Florence, both very progressive and competent men who are grateful for the vigorous support that the Fascist Government has given to the educational-social programs that they have long endeavored to carry through to completion. They accept the restrictions and the dramatic *élan* and ballyhoo of the Fascist party with equanimity—much as the thousands of American educators tolerate the American Legion and Rotary Club when they support educational programs for health and safety and playgrounds.

Giovanni Gentile, who as minister of education launched the deservedly famous School Reform of 1923, is a liberal who early accepted fascism as a price for the opportunity to carry out the fundamental educational program that he believed to be desirable for Italy. To him both fascism and education may be defined as "taking life seriously." The extremes of the revolutionary period seem regrettable to him, but not unjustified as a means of changing Italy from a mere geographic conception into a purposeful and intentioned society.

Not all of the older liberals, however, are content with recent developments. To his former friend, Benedetto Croce, such a compromise as Gentile made was unwarranted. Croce has avoided any overt break with the Fascist party, but he does not conceal his opposition and unhappiness at the present condition. He asserts that his students in the University of Naples have little interest in the meanings of contemporary events. They are so emotionalized that they consider a vigorous and animated plea to be of more significance than a reasoned analysis. Nevertheless, Croce finds comfort in the belief that the Italian people has so long a heritage of skepticism and individuality that intellectual revolt will soon be forthcoming. Such

challenges to be effective must arise, he believes, within the party itself, since external criticism tends merely to stimulate their cohesion and their determination to demand unquestioning loyalty to *Il Duce* and to the Fascist program.

In any case, Croce's philosophy of history is so positive that there is no room for doubt regarding the outcome of the present confused and conflicting activities. For "history is God's word," he says, and so in good time there will eventuate the world that He has in mind. It is man's task to interpret history; in the long run, he is relatively powerless to make it or affect it, except as the instrument of God.

Other liberals and socialists have been unwilling to accept the Revolution so passively. Some are in prison; others are in exile; a few of the more outspoken have been killed. Many Fascists regret, however, that such extreme measures of repression have seemed necessary to the leaders.

As one rides in third-class railroad compartments one occasionally finds men of less important business rank who have never forsworn their skepticisms regarding the theatricals that form so significant a part of Italian political and religious life. Such persons talk freely concerning the play-acting of the Fascist hierarchy if they can converse with a foreigner in English or French or German. They despise the mentality of the Fascist noncommissioned officers who serve on the trains, or who hold minor governmental posts. They describe the Fascist program as "pure act and ballyhoo" in so many circumlocutions and variations, that one must conclude that among themselves very many traveling salesmen and shopkeepers and minor executives of factories show little reverence for the elaborate and infantile showmanship of the Fascist party.

Within the private homes of liberals and socialists, and even in the semipublic rooms of pensions where they meet, the discussion and criticism of Fascist policy and programs seems unrestrained. Good taste or fear

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causes teachers to be very careful and guarded about their comments on political questions when in their schools, but these same persons may state their skepticism quite openly in their own homes.

The barrage of publicity and propaganda that is laid down by means of newspapers, magazines, books, posters, newsreels, and exhibits doubtless tends to beat down moral resistance to the sway of *Fascismo* and to lead to its acceptance as something to be grateful for and proud of, or at least as an inevitable status. The omnipresence of soldiers, Fascists in black uniforms, *bersaglieri* in plumed hats, Fascist militia in green, army officers in light blue capes and visor caps, *Carabinieri* in deep blue capes and tricorn hats, supplemented by young Fascists in their black and gilt hats and even the *avanguardisti* youths in gray-green—all this must affect the consciousness and subconsciousness of civilians, so as to reduce to absurdity any hope of violent overthrow of the established order by the non-Fascist masses.

Beneath the surface of this pageantry and blare, it is probable that there are unexpressed disharmonies. It is commonly asserted that the royal guards—*carabinieri*—remain remote from the Fascist militia whom they may even despise. Some socialists believe, indeed, that the *carabinieri* would be used to suppress the militia if leadership of the Fascist party should pass to those radicals whose sympathy is for the less privileged. It is difficult for the visitor, however, not to believe that the economically lowest classes are not well content with the conditions of life. Within the ranks of the artisans and *petit bourgeoisie*, perhaps, there may sometime develop organized discontent, but the very poor in both urban and rural Italy have greater security than ever before.

SOCIAL CONTROL THROUGH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Within the elementary schools the positive political indoctrination of reading books, songs, salutes, prayers, poetry, and the per-

sonal gratitude for Mussolini's and the Fascist party's care and protection are the more obvious instruments for controlling the attitudes and beliefs and behaviors of these children. More subtle indoctrination, however, is the massed action, the chorus recitation, the physical exercises, the *balilla* and *piccole Italiane* costumes, the marching through halls, the eating of meals provided through the *assistenze* of the *Opera Nazionale Balilla*. In every classroom are pictures of the King and of Mussolini joined by the crucifix.

Aside from these uniformities, however, the individual expressions of children are encouraged. In drawing, music, gardening, and written compositions, the initiative and originality of each child are brought out. Especially in drawing does one find the outcome of the belief of Gentile that every child has a phantom life that should find expression in art. Both in rural schools and in cities the children of the elementary grades are helped to draw and paint, to make original designs for notebooks and written papers, many of which show both imagination and meticulous care in execution. Even in the learning of fundamental skills and knowledge, pupils work individually. Gentile has been a great admirer of Montessori and every teacher has been given opportunities to study without expense the Montessori method.

At present, however, there is in Rome a replacement of the *Riforma Gentile* by *politica fascista* as a basal philosophy for elementary education. This substitution involves a diminution of the individual expression and Montessori method in favor of massed activity. On January 1, 1934, all elementary schools of Italy were made state schools and Padellaro, formerly in charge of the city elementary schools of Rome, was elevated to a national supervisorship. Presumably, the schools of the rest of Italy will be rapidly changed in line with *politica fascista*.

In the secondary schools the life of pupils seems less regimented. The curriculum, how-

ever, is formal and, in the case of history, definitely distorted to validate the fascist belief that liberalism and parliamentarism have failed not only in Italy, but everywhere else where they have found expression. Philosophy is correlated with history, but the philosophy is modeled after a geometry proposition. By means of it, pupils arrive at the "truth" that all history and all historical philosophy lead inevitably to the conclusion that fascism—the rule of a purposeful élite—is the only adequate form of social-political organization. Inasmuch as these secondary-school youths are potentially the élite, it is not difficult for them so to philosophize that this conclusion seems to be indicated. The Catholic dogma is studied, also, but rather as a story to be told by the élite to the less favored than as something to be believed by the chosen youths.

Not until the university level are youth encouraged or even permitted to think scientifically for themselves. "Pupils must learn before they can think" is Gentile's belief. Unfortunately, the result of the many years of intolerant emotionalized atmosphere of elementary and secondary schools has made it difficult to take advantage of their alleged freedom to think. In fact, members of the Fascist organizations of university students are said to spy on both professors and fellow students who are inclined to express any opinions hostile to Fascism. Under such conditions, the lack of interest in intellectual exploration and adventure of which Croce complains is certainly not surprising.

Two coördinated and very effective extra-school educational instrumentalities in which youths and adults share combine the spontaneity and pageantry so dear to Italian peoples with potent indoctrination in the acceptance of and pride in the powerful Fascist state. These organizations—the *Opera Nazionale Balilla* ("O.N.B.") and the *Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro* ("O.N.D.")—are now centrifugal in organization and administration, though the former originated

independently of central control in those localities where the *Fascisti* were peculiarly vigorous.

The *balilla* consists of a number of subsidiary organizations, the chief of which are the younger boys to whom the name *Balilla* is itself applied, the younger girls known as the *Piccole Italiane*; the adolescent boys, *Avanguardisti*, and girls, *Giovani Italiane*, and the *Instituzione dei Giovani Italiani* or Young Fascists, the vestibule to the Fascist party. The program of each of these organizations consists of civic, military, political, athletic, cultural, and vocational training. In each city and village there is a *Casa del Balilla* or *balilla* home used for gymnastic, civic, and recreational purposes. The local supervisor of schools is *ex officio* president of the *balilla* and the local militia commandant is the director. All teachers in the schools are *balilla* officers. The *balilla* executives are the physical-education teachers in the schools. The various *balilla* groups sponsor or support all school and community projects—health inspection, *assistenza* or care of the poor and helpless, festivals, evening schools and the rest.

As in the case of a creatively controlled school, the youths are encouraged to participate actively and so to feel ownership in every cultural, civic, military, sanitary, educational, and recreational undertaking promoted by the Fascist party. These undertakings the youths enter into joyously and confidently and successfully; hence, they tend to give their loyal support to the total program sponsored by the party.

To the *balilla* organization are assigned outright the responsibility for the management of all nonclassified schools and for adult education in Calabria, Sicily, and Sardinia. In 1930 these schools numbered five hundred and fifty-three and contained some fifty-five thousand pupils; they are known as "Rural Schools of the National *Balilla* Institution." The sea training and the air training of Italian youth and the excursions both within and outside of Italy are

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also entrusted to the balilla organization.

The other national educational extra-school organization, the *Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro*, is of more recent development. From a central office at Rome there emanate directions to provincial offices which in turn supervise the local *dopolavoro* councils. These councils initiate and support public libraries, playgrounds and parks, amateur orchestras, bands, dramatics, athletic events, exhibits, festivals, and the like. In many undertakings they coöperate with the balilla to raise funds for *assistenza* and to wage the struggles against malaria, tuberculosis, and insanitary conditions.

It is one aim of this institution to draw ever larger numbers of non-Fascist adults into active participation in and sponsorship of the many civic and cultural projects promoted by the Fascist party. In this process, they are apparently successful not only in building up the morale of the rather inert masses, but also in securing the coöperation of many former or present socialists and liberals. Indeed, so many of the concrete and immediate goals of the Fascist party are concerned with human values that are approved by all intelligent persons of good will, that only a very stubborn socialist or liberal could restrain himself from giving support to these specific efforts.

The realization of the success of these

attempts to overcome resistance somewhat embitters many socialists in Italy, and also some American liberals who feel, very likely with reason, that the values so highly prized by democrats—free speech, individual expression, scientific attitudes, and independent reflection and proposals—are too precious to be surrendered to any élite. They feel that the return in social security and in individual culture is too great a price to pay for social and intellectual conformity and for the substitution of nationalistic emotionalism in place of party fragmentation. Nevertheless, they cannot quite condemn those Italians who believe that health, literacy, cultural expression, adequate housing, civic beauty, and the rest are desirable, for coöperating with the Fascist party in bringing about such desirable conditions even though that very coöperation tends to decrease the social resistance to the Fascist ideology.

Sometime, perhaps, it may be possible to find some common ground on which all may stand if they are sincerely desirous of promoting the attainment of concrete goals that are acceptable to all. Perhaps, loyalty to an ideology is less significant than party members believe it to be. Perhaps—but one cannot be very sure as yet. Neither Italian nor American experience in seeking collaboration among all classes has been altogether encouraging to date.

Modernizing Secondary Education

Walter Scott McColley

EDITOR'S NOTE: *At the Dixon High School, Dixon, Illinois, the author teaches social studies and speculates on how American high schools might be brought into step with our times. There is more than a speck of genius in the analysis and synthesis he offers here, a plan for a life school to replace the traditional high school.*

THE OLD high-school model of secondary education has been taken out of storage, oiled up, tinkered with, and is now started upon its annual attempt to transport the youth of America to Parnassus. Every one knows that progress will be slow, that there will be the usual number of breakdowns, casualties, and disappointed hopes, but as long as there are laws to recruit the passenger list and taxpayers to pay running expenses, nobody worries except the passengers and the taxpayers, whose worries are as yet ill-defined.

As the years pass, the besetting ills of the outmoded high school become apparent. Keeping in mind the famed Seven Cardinal Principles, these ills may be enumerated: (1) The fundamental processes are practically ignored, even though it is notorious that high-school graduates cannot spell, do not know their multiplication tables, and have to skip words of very many syllables.

2. Ethical character does not seem to develop out of training in an artificial environment. Public opinion, which plays so large a part in molding public and private character, becomes subverted in an institution so that right and wrong tend to become transposed in the minds of the inmates. (In the high school, the pupils are essentially inmates.)

3. Training for worthy home membership is glossed over in the high school with courses in home economics and manual training, giving no training whatsoever in the fields of marital responsibilities, practical housekeeping, and eugenics.

4. Citizenship, as an outcome of high-school education, is a catch-as-catch-can

proposition, with the odds against catching. The high school becomes a training ground in the art of shifting responsibilities, due largely to the fact that the responsibilities are artificially imposed. Little has been done toward setting up within the school a system of self-government comprehensive enough to provide real training in democratic citizenship.

5. The art of healthful living does not seem to have been inculcated in the hearts and minds of graduates of the high school. Physical education, as it is called, sometimes whimsically, usually stresses the competitive element at the expense of the play element with the result that we are a nation of fans, rather than a nation of players.

6. It would be ironic to say that graduates of our high schools are aided by their high-school experience in the task of making a living. Any one having contact with large numbers of high-school graduates is struck by the pathetic and economically and socially unhealthy fact that the great majority of graduates have no more definite ideas concerning vocational possibilities, or their own aptitudes, than they had before entrance into the high school.

7. The most optimistic observer might find it difficult to explain how the high school, as now administered, is leading pupils into permanent habits of choosing and following constructive leisure-time activities. The present system is so filled with the psychology of busyness that legitimate leisure has no place in it.

The difficulty with trading in the old model is that there is no other type of secondary education available at the price we want to pay. It remains, then, for some enterprising educational promoter to perfect and place on the market a type of secondary education suited to this streamlined age.

What would an ideal secondary school be

like? How would it differ from the institution we call the high school? The "high" school was originally so designated only because it was located upon the upper floors of the school building, the elementary school occupying the lower part. It is unfortunate that the name is retained, because the name seems to lead away from fundamentals and to point toward the realms of advanced learning. It would seem far more logical to have the word "high" replaced by a more significant adjective, such as "life," or perhaps "life preparatory." The secondary school should definitely be a school of preparation for life, with college preparation only incidental. Accrediting agencies seem prone to overlook the fact that if a student is prepared for life he must automatically be prepared for college. Probably it is not overstating the situation to say that the purposelessness of most college students is due to the fact that they are unacquainted with the bigness of life and with its demands and responsibilities. The ideal secondary school must be, fundamentally, a reproduction of life, scaled down to fit the partially developed natures of the students.

The ideal secondary school, then, would be a life-preparatory school. That is a generalization with which few would disagree. Specific outgrowths of this generalization are demanded, therefore, before there can be further consideration of the new model. There are given below nine characteristics which may be called "general principles" of the life school.

1. Four years is insufficient to train children into the paths of economic and social solidarity. There should be made available a period of six years, preferably reaching upward, rather than downward, from the four years of the present high school. Within this period, however, there should be no pigeonholing of students into "classes," for advancement should not be spaced by years, but should be continuous, and regulated only by the progress of the individual.

2. Instead of artificial grouping of students by age, sex, or classified standing, the

life school will arrange students, for administrative as well as educative purposes, in interest groups. These groups, founded upon scholastic, vocational, or recreative bonds between the students, will correspond with the homeroom grouping so common in the high school.

3. Advancement from one phase to another in the life-school program will be made on the basis of examinations administered through the central office of the school.

4. A comprehensive system of student self-government will handle all matters pertaining to the routine management of the school.

5. There will be a complete separation of the police function from instruction.

6. The institutionalized aspect of the school will be broken down by transferring or, more accurately, restoring part of the responsibility of education to the community, through the utilization of community enterprises for student observation and apprenticeship.

7. Financial reward of effort will be used to encourage student enterprise wherever such student enterprise is economically productive. If students are able to carry on an athletic program, a dramatic program, or vocational program so successfully that profits accrue, they will be permitted to profit therefrom. However, it would doubtless be desirable to work out a system whereby these profits would be applied to the individuals' expenses of education.

8. Formal marking or "grading" will not be employed, except in the way of periodic reports to parents concerning the progress of the students. These reports will not be used other than to inform parents concerning difficulties which their children may be meeting.

9. The entire life-school program will be put on the basis of productive enterprise. Advancement will be determined by proficiency and, in the later phases of the life-school program, students of demonstrated ability will receive preference in the matter of vocational placement. It is to be expected

that the application of competitive business principles will reduce the burden of taxation for the support of secondary education.

With the principles characterizing the life school outlined, the task remains to point out how these principles will be put into operation. Using the same numerical plan of outlining, methods of applying these principles are next presented.

1. The first phase of the life school will be one of extensive exploratory study. During this period the students will begin the process of getting acquainted with the world's activities and making the transition from childhood to adult interests. Students will be allocated to interest groups, partially on the basis of vocational aptitudes tests, and partially on the basis of already acquired interests. During the early phases there will be great freedom in the transfer of students from one interest group to another. Students of the first and second phases will be divided into study sections for mastery of certain background courses in English, biology, history, economic geography, and government. Formal class organization will not be needed, for each department of the life school will have its own reading and study rooms where the students will work under the supervision of an expert instructor on projects and subject matter prepared by him.

Upon advancement to the second phase of the life-school program, students will continue their background studies which, however, will by this time be definitely pointed toward specialization. There will be some differentiation, for example, in the study outlines of students having different vocational interests. History, to the person interested in medicine, takes on a slightly different significance than it does to the person interested in engineering.

The third phase of the life-school program will be one of real specialization, marked by the beginning of individual projects, under the direction of faculty members, and by the beginning of work in vocational observation, utilizing the resources of the community. The study sections of the

first two phases will be replaced by discussion groups in which each member will be responsible for leading the discussion in his turn. Programs for the groups will be worked out in advance by the group with the faculty adviser in supervision.

The fourth phase of the life school will be one of active apprenticeship in the vocational field of interest to the student. He will make detailed reports of progress to the faculty adviser, who will keep in touch with the store, shop, office, or institution where the student is under apprenticeship. A part of each day, during the fourth phase, will be spent in an elementary form of research, each student to work upon some problem of particular interest to himself.

2. Pupils will be assigned, by the close of the first year or as much earlier as possible, to an interest group, vocational or cultural in nature. Such interest groups will be centered around music, art, agriculture, industrial arts, household arts, commerce, engineering, etc. These groups will meet daily under the advisory leadership of a faculty member to carry on their own organization and their own constructive program. The activities here will offer training in speech as well as practice in the art of pooling ideas, and will contribute definitely to the success or failure of the student in his chosen field of work.

3. The principle of advancement only upon the basis of examinations administered through the central office will obviate the common evil of students being "passed" by instructors through fear, favoritism, or pity. The plan will, furthermore, put the student upon his own responsibility; an important step in character building, as well as in personality adjustment. Students will be permitted to take examinations, upon recommendation of the instructor in the field, as soon as they are ready to do so. Thus the abler students will have an incentive for sustained hard striving for advancement, knowing that they are not destined to be pigeonholed for a semester, or for a year, while waiting for the slower students to

grasp the material of instruction. The examinations will be held frequently enough that failure will not mean the loss of more than two months. Competitive examinations form an important part of life, and probably should not be omitted from an educational system.

4. The conventional type of secondary-school training does not, and probably cannot, develop a real sense of social responsibility in students. Students feel, not without reason, that it is not their school they are thrust thus unwillingly into, but an institution presided over by enemies of adolescence. The high school is so thoroughly institutionalized that the individual does not get the feeling of belonging to a corporate group. Experiments in student self-government in the high school have usually failed to accomplish their purpose because student governmental authority has been sharply delimited and usually jealously supervised by adult authority.

The life school will have a central council composed of representatives from the interest groups; this council to have final authority in any jurisdiction not involving the course of study. The principal and a school board member, or trustee, will be ex officio members of this council with, however, only advisory powers. In addition to the central council, each interest group will have its own council, (consisting of elected members from the group, with the instructor as an advisory member.

5. The traditional hostility between pupil and teacher is deeply rooted in the high-school plan of organization. As long as the teacher makes rules and attempts to enforce them, the police function must continue to absorb a large percentage of teacher time. In the life school, uniform standards of conduct will be set up for the entire school by the central council. Students violating these standards of conduct will be reported, by students, to the central council, which will handle such cases. Inasmuch as pupils are more inclined toward harshness than leniency in disciplining each other, the work of

adult advisory members of the council will, in disciplinary cases, be to temper justice with mercy. Like courts outside of school, the council will be guided by codes of fixed punishments for specific offenses. Respect for constituted authority, as well as an understanding of processes of government, are lessons to be gained from this activity.

6. It is difficult for students to understand, and probably as difficult to justify, the policy of retaining for school purposes surplus earnings from student enterprises. If it is justifiable for members of an agriculture class to have for their own use the profits from projects in gardening or stock raising, conducted under school supervision, it seems equally fair and ethical for students to be allowed to divide net profits from journalistic enterprises, dramatic productions, exhibitions, or even from athletic competition. Certainly, if industrial-arts groups, or household-arts groups, or others, can sell their services, or their products they should be allowed to profit financially thereby. Such division of profits will be regulated by the groups themselves so that only those students in good standing can participate. The incentive to earn will be a powerful factor in ensuring the success of the life-school program.

7. Education has been and should continue to be essentially a community enterprise, coöperated in by the community for the benefit of the community through its children. Under the high-school system, the community has, in effect, said, "We'll pay the bills, but we can't be bothered with the educative process. That's what we hire the teachers for." The community has paid heavily for this attitude; it has paid heavily in disappointed hopes as well as in money. Just as infants suffer when their nurture is turned over entirely to hired help, so the youth of a community lose in economic and social fitness when the community relinquishes responsibility for the success of an educational program. It seems unfortunate that the idea ever came into secondary education that large investments in buildings

and equipment are a guarantee of effective teaching and learning. Rather than have school systems invest large sums of money in industrial and other equipment, the life-school plan will utilize such equipment as the community has to offer under the school's plan of a supervised apprenticeship for those students specializing in a given field.

The objection might be raised to the plan that plant owners and other employers would be unwilling to have their work obtruded upon by students. But, even under the high-school system, many entrepreneurs welcome visiting classes. There is no reason to believe that if the life-school plan were widely adopted, public sentiment could not be so built up that managers of enterprises would be glad to coöperate. A supervised apprentice, just as a regular adult worker, would be obliged to "make good" or be replaced. Hospitals, offices, stores, in fact every community activity, should be made available for the education of the youth of the community. As has been pointed out, the students of the fourth phase of the life school will have gained enough proficiency in their apprenticeship work that they will be earning a small wage.

8. Graduated marking systems are part of the artificial institutionalization of the present secondary-school system. In life there are essentially only two marks: success and failure. Varying degrees of success are indicated only by the rapidity of progress and the stage of advancement of individuals. Graduated marking systems encourage the majority of students to exert themselves only as little as possible to gain the lowest "passing" mark. They are thus being conditioned to go through life barely getting past the barriers of failure. Volumes have been written on the subject of objective marking in school, but the most purely objective marking attainable would still fail to measure achievement unless the student has incentives sufficient to produce the will to achieve. The pulling power of a horse cannot be measured unless the horse can be in-

duced to pull. The life school will assume that before success can be attained, habits of success must be formed. The present system of education, with its artificial system of marking, fails to establish such habits, for to all intents and purposes a "C" grade is as good as an "A."

9. From 1910 to 1930 the cost of education increased some 440 per cent while the national population rose about 35 per cent and the national income increased less than 150 per cent. This huge increase in educational costs was due largely to the expansion of secondary education. This expansion of secondary education has been unaccompanied by tangible economic or social gains, and taxpayers are beginning to begrudge money spent on education. Hence, it seems as if there must of necessity be developed more efficient educational machinery. Economic law demands that any enterprise that is to live and grow must produce more than it consumes. Students in the high school are not regarded, even in their own estimation, as producers: an extremely bad commentary on the system. The life school proposes to make of each student an effective, productive member of the body politic. Production costs must be figured not on the basis of quantity alone, but also on the basis of quality. Crime, dependency, corruption in politics, divorce, and all forms of social unadjustment have been on the increase, indicating that the educational system is not highly successful in qualifying a citizenry to take part in a constructive program of social progress. The tendency has been, of recent years, to shift this burden to the college, but the character of our nation is molded, not by the college, but by the secondary school. Therefore, if the high school is failing to perform the function of preparation for life, the money spent on secondary education is largely wasted. It follows that if a new plan of secondary education will function where the high school has failed, the new plan will be, both socially and economically, a great boon to progress and prosperity.

Challenge to the Schools

Lucia McC. McBride

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mrs. McBride is a member of the Cleveland Board of Education. It is distinctly encouraging to read an article in which a layman advances principles of education which would do credit to a member of the profession. Perhaps her article is a token of the fact that American schools are gaining momentum toward more realistic goals on account of the intelligent support that boards of education are providing for professional leaders in the public schools. The pages of this magazine are open to board members of whatever bias, progressive or conservative; we shall be glad to publish additional contributions as readable as the following one.*

EVERY THOUGHTFUL person who surveys the problems and difficulties of the public-school system in the United States recognizes that, coupled with the great financial stress in which the schools find themselves, they are faced with the practical problems of adjusting public-school education and particularly high-school education to a rapidly changing world. Perhaps the problem is most acute in the large metropolitan centers where the population is mixed and largely foreign or of foreign descent. The schools are charged with the responsibility of preparing their young people for an economic and social order which will produce great changes in the coming years.

On the other hand, there are teaching in the public schools, in addition to many eager and realistic men and women, thousands of others who are still controlled by the more static and rigid academic standards under which they were trained and from which it is very difficult to emerge. The American Association of Teachers recognized this situation last year by a resolution by which it favored the necessity of constantly improving teacher-training facilities. They further adopted a resolution to raise the minimum requirements for teachers so that the poorly qualified candidates may not crowd out those meeting adequate standards. They

recognize further that unquestionably it is desirable that more stress on personal and social traits as well as mental ability and professional skill is needed, if the schools are to keep the interest and respect of the high-school student today.

The dead hand of the colleges and their requirements has done, it seems to me, an incalculable amount of damage in destroying the enthusiasm of youth for many of the subjects they are forced to study. It has been too easy to impose rigid academic standards upon all schools and the pressure has been pretty constant to make this the standard for all, too often ignoring the fact that skill in Latin and higher mathematics is not necessarily a complete preparation for life. To be sure the secondary schools have struggled nobly to withstand complete asphyxiation and have wrung from the colleges grudging adjustments in the requirements for college entrance. Nevertheless, the reluctance of the colleges in general to recognize the changing educational needs of young people quickly enough needs no comment.

What are we attempting to educate our young people for and with whom are we dealing? It would seem to me that the fundamental aim of an education should be not only to train young people soundly and wisely for their probable needs, but to create in them an enthusiasm for a continuing education instead of the distaste which too often exists toward any further excursions in this field.

Every one knows that young people as well as adults work hard at whatever project or subject commands their interest, and further that they work best in the fields where they secure eager and inspiring leadership from the teacher. I recognize fully that it is difficult to ask teachers to be eager and inspiring who have often an indefensible teaching load imposed upon them; whose salaries

have been drastically cut; who have been deprived of many of the essential tools with which to work; and yet we do know that in spite of all this there are teachers who do get satisfying and inspiring results from their students while others plod along in the traditional way and get just the kind of a response one would expect.

Fulfilling many of the college requirements in English, for instance, practically ruins the enthusiasm on the part of the bulk of the students for much that is great and noble in our literature. The damage that has been done to *Hamlet*, for instance, cannot be estimated! That great play which should be admirably read by a teacher who *can* read, that should be treated as a whole as a great and moving work of art, has been dissected, analyzed, pulled apart, until it is a hunted and bedraggled thing, seen in sections more often than not and as a repository of trick quotations. I believe that the whole question of requiring that certain poems, novels, and plays should be read by certain grades should be completely restudied by wise and modern minded teachers of literature in the light of their practical experience. After all *Silas Marner* does not arouse much enthusiasm in the mind of the average high-school student, nor, do I venture to say, does much of the required reading of the works of certain poets and novelists of the nineteenth century.

I regard *John Brown's Body* by Stephen Vincent Benét as a greater narrative poem than countless hackneyed and so-called literary "gems." The aim of teachers of English should be to make their students familiar with great literature. The best of our own period and more and more well-written current plays, poems, and novels which are being written or produced by the best contemporary authors should be made a part of the required reading of our youth in the schools. We should encourage also the reading of contemporary biographies and authoritative books of travel.

We do not, I believe, recognize the impor-

tance of what one might call social ease. In the 1934 report of Superintendent Charles H. Lake of the Cleveland Public Schools, he reports that a thoughtful and curious junior-high-school principal recently asked all of the parents of his pupils to answer the following question: "What in your opinion can we teach your child in order that he or she may be a better member of the family and society?" The answer is significant and can be a significant guide. Eighty per cent of the parents replied, "Teach them good manners." We are dealing with a population of young people living in a world of speed which is constantly being accelerated by incredible mechanical devices. They should, therefore, be trained, it seems to me, to function as effectively as possible in such a world. They should be trained to develop critical taste. They should learn to judge the motion picture from a realistic and critical standpoint. They should be able to judge as to whether the photography is good or bad, the actors competent and gifted, whether their voices are cultivated and pleasing, and whether the dialogue and the story are convincingly presented. It is interesting in this connection to note that the public libraries in Cleveland have been swamped for demands for *David Copperfield* as a result of the recent moving-picture presentation of Dickens's story presented by a cast of exceptional excellence. The motion picture is permanently with us and the motion picture of tomorrow will be what the high-school boys and girls of today have learned to demand.

Every young person should be taught to read the newspaper and not one newspaper but several if possible, not only the sporting page but the financial page, the current news, international and national news, and the dramatic criticism. As the newspaper is certain to be one of their principal sources of reading, why not recognize it, prepare them for it and help them to recognize propaganda by knowing the character and bias of the papers they read.

We have not yet begun sufficiently to

stress and develop the social sciences. It is quite apparent that the courses which deal with simple economics, sociology, and the other sciences are increasingly popular with the students, and teachers should be far better prepared to approach these subjects from modern needs in view of modern conditions. We cannot disregard the fact that our cities at present are being run by many conspicuous examples of those in our lowest mental group. We shall have to train those in our schools who have been so well described by Mr. E. W. Butterfield as "the new 50 per cent" to follow wise and honest leadership. It is these people who bulk largely in the life of our cities, and it is both idle and ominous not to recognize the material with which we are dealing and to try to train it realistically in practical living.

One of the real difficulties which teachers meet constantly in the schools is the conflict of the fine standards which are taught in the schools, with that which is sordid and dishonest among their home surroundings and associates. These ideals are in direct conflict with crime, bootlegging, and law-evading elements in our cities which are protected by our politicians, and knowledge of this situation creates a disturbing conflict in the minds of the high-school youth. This undeniable fact has been abundantly demonstrated through the findings of the Committee on Citizenship Training for the Cleveland schools which has been at work for over a year outlining a new course of citizenship for Cleveland schools. There has been, it seems to me, far too much "white-collar" sentiment in our public-school education. Too many parents, ambitious for their children, drive them from their natural tendencies into fields which seem to the parents more dignified and important. This is probably more true among those who have more recently come to this country. Certainly the problem of the parent is a complex and difficult one and the process of educating them is slow, but our teachers must be continuously watchful to gain the parents' confi-

dence and support in protecting the skills of the boys and girls and to gain permission to guide them into channels where they may be content and have definite success. Nothing is more stimulating to us all than a recognition of our own capabilities in any field, and we cannot disregard the fact that an educational system, which does not take careful and due account of the individual, is going to be condemned seriously in the future.

We must endeavor to train young people to be somewhat more facile and to persuade them not to concentrate their efforts in one narrow field. During the depression these people who have been more fortunate than others in securing positions have been the individuals who could turn their hands to many tasks. The practical value of being a "Jack of all trades" should not be ignored.

We shall have to recognize that our young people will have more leisure than ever before, that the world is not waiting to furnish them positions, that there are not many places for young stenographers and secretaries at sixteen and that the demand in this field is for older and more experienced women. Surely the schools in the larger metropolitan centers at least will be forced to extend their work for one or two years more providing a sort of junior college where young people can continue an enriched education, perhaps while they are waiting for positions, or at work on half time. Certainly we shall have to take care of them and it is far more suitable and desirable that the public should tax itself to continue the education of its children than to pay for their disillusionment by an increased police force, more courts, jails, and penal institutions.

The music department under Russell Morgan in the Cleveland public-school system is building up a youthful population in Cleveland for the appreciation of symphony music which is unsurpassed anywhere. The training that Mr. Morgan and his associates furnish through the hearty coöperation of principals and teachers in the schools is thoroughly sound and inspiring, and the crowded

audiences which fill Severance Hall for the Young Peoples' Concerts and their enthusiastic attention is ample evidence of his success.

Charles W. Elliot, that great educator and prophet of democracy, would rejoice in the expansion of work in the field of the arts in the schools, believing as he did that "every child should be taught to draw, model, sing or play on a musical instrument and read music." Dr. Elliot, it will be remembered, also charged the schools to make room for new subjects and for increased instruction addressed to the individual pupil. He urged us also to reduce classwork and the size of the classes, to lengthen the school day, and to shorten the summer vacation. To quote him further, he insisted that every pupil should have a fair chance to learn the elements of agriculture, dietetics, cooking, and hygiene, the elements of some manual trade, and the domestic arts, and that instruction in hygiene should include the defenses of society against the disease and degradation consequent upon ignorance, poverty, and vice.

The response that children make in the Cleveland schools to the fine work of the art departments directed by Alfred Howell is valid evidence that here is another great field which should be developed and encouraged, and design, painting, sculpture, and the crafts have devoted followers in increasing numbers. Certainly in the larger cities opportunities for intelligent and modern training in the foreign languages meets a genuine need also, and in Cleveland the work in this department under Dr. Emile de Sauzé as well as his summer University courses in languages at Western Reserve University has produced a fine staff of gifted teachers in French and other languages in the Cleveland schools whose students develop a surprising facility in this field.

These are not the only subjects in which there is an increasing interest on the part of the high-school students and we must not therefore ignore these indications, but we

must be willing to make the necessary adjustments in the curriculum for those who are academically inclined and who desire to train themselves for the professions, and we should be eager to revise our high-school curriculum realistically with reference to the needs of our youth and their capacity to master and to use the material that we give them. We should approach these changes without fear and with enthusiasm. In doing this we should attempt to remove the strain of excessive homework for subjects in which they have little interest; we must recognize reasonable objectives and should realize that the citizen of tomorrow is the high-school student of today; the courses should be varied and enriched in content, and should be adjusted in recognition to the importance that citizenship plays in decent living. Here we must recognize also that interest is best sustained and young people better prepared to meet the world if so-called controversial subjects are studied and discussed in the classroom.

Surely no one would wish the teacher to be a strong propagandist for one question or another but no sensible person, it seems to me, would deny to a conscientious and devoted teacher the opportunity to aid high-school students in learning how to face vexatious problems, to evaluate material, to recognize propaganda, and to learn how to disagree amicably when necessary. Some of the most inspiring and practical work in citizenship training is now being done in many of the high schools of this country through the admirably arranged extracurricular activities.

We must discourage at the source from entering the teaching profession all those who have not a compelling and eager interest in education and a sympathetic understanding of the problems of youth. I regard the teaching profession as the most important of all professions and because I respect it so highly I would protect it from both the time-servers and the lazy-minded. Teachers

have always been in a strategic position because they, with the parents, mold the citizens of tomorrow. Upon the measure of their success the continuing support and expansion of the public schools in the future will depend. This is our challenge. Let us reexamine the traditions under which we have been proceeding, let us boldly cast off

the stultifying requirements of past academic traditions which are now no longer valid for the bulk of the young people with whom we are dealing today, and let us in the light of our own experiences give our young people an education adjusted to their individual capabilities and to the demands of a very complex world.

Guidance Through the Homeroom

Ruth Osgood Denning

EDITOR'S NOTE: *We need more guidance counselors, and better ones; but there is increasing recognition of the fact that the most effective guidance service is rendered by the homeroom counselor and the classroom teacher. The essence of everything that we think of as "modern" in education is mixed up with this idea. The following article presents some intimate details concerning the qualification of the teacher who is "guide, philosopher, and friend."*

WITHIN the past few years, there has been an increasing interest in the problems and opportunities of the homeroom in the secondary school. Administrators have presented plans for forming the homeroom on the basis of sex, intelligence, alphabetical, or purely random grouping; they have suggested methods of organizing the homeroom and have attempted to superimpose objectives; they have written pages of suggestive material for homeroom programs, and have debated diligently the respective advantages of a long and a short period, and of *how* long and *how* short. On one point there has been a surprising tendency to agree; namely, that there must be a unity of procedure in the case of all the homerooms of a given school. With this point of view I must add my concurrence if by unity of procedure is meant unity of general purpose and the delegation to each homeroom teacher of an equal freedom of opportunity in achieving such purpose with her own group. To the extent that unity of procedure means *identity* of procedure, I so seriously challenge its wisdom that I am almost willing to say that it is better to permit a homeroom group to go entirely unguided than to lay down hard and fast rules for its guidance.

The relation between a homeroom group and its teacher is so definitely a traffic in personalities that it is as impossible for a supervisor to map out the most satisfying program for a given group as for an interested neighbor to prescribe a schedule for a mother's companionship with her brood.

For, if the homeroom has any significance at all, aside from being a convenient place to give notices, such significance lies in the conception of the homeroom teacher as the "mother-teacher." A woman without deeply maternal instincts probably has no place in the school at all, however clever she may be in subject matter; that is very certainly the case as regards the homeroom.

What are the maternal characteristics which must find their school expression through the homeroom teacher? First, I am sure, she must love children. It will not be difficult to apply this universal sensibility to the particular members of her own group—indeed, I think it would be very difficult not to so apply it, since these are the children she knows the best, from whose virtues she reaps the most personal rewards, and whose failings she best understands from a greater knowledge of their environmental disadvantages. To card-catalogue such personnel information is scientific; it is not maternal. A person who is unable to remember the health, home, and disposition factors of the thirty-five children with whom she is most closely associated seems to me a long way from maternal interest.

She must be wise as well as devoted. While maintaining a sympathetic attitude towards the pupils' difficulties, she must not fail to see the *whole* picture, and must lead the child to see it. In order to be of the most value to the child, she must hold him rigidly to certain standards of obedience, honesty, courtesy, punctuality, consideration for the rights of others, duty. On a vital matter, there can be no compromise. If teacher and pupil differ as to what is vital, the final decision must be that of the teacher. Her judgment, based upon a wider experience than his, merits the pupil's respect and his obedience, whatever mental reservations he may be entitled to.

The teacher, however, is not the dominant element in the homeroom situation. While her method of procedure will never be identical with that of any other homeroom teacher, it is probable that her own plans of action will be almost equally dissimilar with different groups under her sponsorship. "Home" to one group of children has a quite different connotation from that which it has to another group. There are, however, to all groups some common factors.

Home is, first of all, a place where people are interested in us, in our scholastic progress, but far more in our hobbies, our health, our social victories, our disappointments and grievances, our friends in their relation to us. It is a place where we can be mentally comfortable, where we can feel free to express ourselves, and where we are inhibited only to the extent that our freedom works a hardship on some one else.

This is what the homeroom should mean to each group of children. These constant factors, it seems to me, are practically independent of the time element; and whether the period provided for homeroom activity is long or short should, in most groups, affect but little this phase of the homeroom's successful functioning.

Groups of children, even of very different children, placed together and subjected to the same influences and experiences, while they do not react identically, do tend to become, in a sense, unified, and develop very marked group traits. One group is brilliant, audacious, irrepressible, irresistible, and exasperating; another is earnest, optimistic, plodding, admirable for its good sportsmanship, but patently, destined to take its place in the rank and file of life; a third, keen, intellectually curious, coöperative, friendly, altruistic, but sensitive, high-strung, dwellers now on the highest mountains and now in the deepest valleys.

In dealing with the first group, the teacher will find the firm voice of authority indispensable; the second group, secure in its mediocrity, plods on its peaceful, patient

way, troubled very little by the vicissitudes of life, and troubling not at all; the third group is the teacher's challenge. Unless she is a trained psychiatrist, there is little she can do except act as shock absorber, in so far as possible, and be alert for any signs of too serious mental conflict. Her problem is aggravated by the fact that, in most schools, no provision is made for *prevention* of "psychic scars." There is no one to whom she may turn, and, even when she suspects the underlying cause of a child's maladjustment, she has not been trained to help him readjust. Psychiatry is not a subject which can be taught in seven lessons. Besides which, the homeroom teacher is also a subject teacher with the responsibility for four or five classes, upon the teaching of which her annual rating is largely based.

In discharging her duties to the homeroom, the teacher comes into contact not only with the pupil himself, but also with his parents, his subject teachers, and the administration.

She must remember that while, to her, there are thirty-five children in the group, to any parent there is but one child. First contacts with parents should, by all means, be made on the basis of the successes or the praiseworthy attributes of their children; that this is not always practicable is a misfortune productive of disastrous consequences. As an ally, the parent is invaluable; as an enemy, or an only half friendly critic, he may be deadly. So far as the teacher's own comfort is concerned, this may be immaterial; from the point of view of the child's welfare, the attitude of his home toward his school is of paramount importance.

All euphemisms aside, there is likely to be, between the teachers and parents of maladjusted children, a basic hostility, not unlike that proverbial between mother-in-law and daughter-in-law, and growing out of a situation not dissimilar. The roots of the maladjustments which the teacher finds in the child lie in his heredity and home environ-

ment; however tactfully she tries to handle the situation, the parent resents, if he sees it, the implication of mismanagement on his part; if the implication escapes him, he has a natural jealousy of this woman "who thinks she understands my child better than I do." His resentment is, perhaps, not greater, but finds a quicker retort, if the teacher happens not to be also a parent. The biological fact of parenthood seems, in his eyes, to more than outweigh any knowledge of child psychology, though reinforced over a period of years by practical experience with hundreds of children. Many a parent has said to me, "I want my child to have a better education than I had." After twenty years, I am still waiting for a parent to say, "I want my child to learn to control himself better than I ever have." Instead, the child's emotional instability is usually dismissed as a hereditary disfigurement, deplorable but irremediable.

It is true that the parent has a more complete picture of the child's behavior pattern than the teacher has; one function of the homeroom teacher is to possess herself of that complete picture. Casual contacts are much more effective than questionnaires as a source of information; the homeroom teacher must be on the alert to embrace opportunities. The child who shyly proffers a ticket to the Boy Scout Rally or to his own violin recital is presenting her with a far greater opportunity than the face of the ticket suggests. Whether it will prove more worth while than the symphony concert she had planned to attend or the book she had intended to read will depend on the whole set of factors making up the complete situation. In its ultimate importance, it will almost surely outweigh an evening of mere theme correction.

In her relation to the subject teachers of her homeroom children, the "mother-teacher" has another opportunity for service to the child and, at the same time, for the exercise of immeasurable tact. The pupil can usually make far too many excuses for

himself; the function of the homeroom teacher is not to add her excuses to his own. The presence of a conditioning factor should never be, in the eyes of any one concerned, an excuse for permitting the pupil to do less than his best; the recognition of such a factor may define what that best is at present, but the definition should never be permitted to remain static. Diagnosis is the physician's preliminary statement of facts; it is valueless unless it leads to improvement. It is only in the rare case that the services of a psychiatrist are necessary; the normal child desires to coöperate; if "the flesh is weak," the sustaining arms of the home, on the one side, and the school, on the other, will usually help him over the bad place.

In a large high school, the administration is usually represented by the principal, one or more assistant principals, and a counselor, the duties of the latter being variously interpreted in various school systems. The individual child, so far as the administration is concerned, does not exist until he gets into trouble. The counselor has his name and program in her files, but his card becomes flesh only when he appears to try to explain his failure in "math." She is kind, and receptive to his explanations, if he has any to offer, but unless he becomes a "problem child" she does not see him often enough to develop a sincere personal interest. The principal and assistant principals have even less interest in the average home room child; that is the unavoidable penalty the child must pay for being a member of so large a group; in his relations with the administration, it is his homeroom teacher who represents him.

To a mother who loves her children and joys in their companionship, every contact is an opportunity. Her teaching is positive and purposeful. She envisions her fledglings in the independence of adulthood, and covets for them buoyant courage, strong wings.

The home room teacher also has the long view. In the light of what she sees, she encourages her children, above all, to face life squarely. She stifles the impulse to do

things for them and sets the stage, rather, for them to help each other. She permits them to assume responsibilities which they have discovered for themselves. She praises their enthusiasm, their coöperation, their orderliness, while, at the same time, she pleads for punctuality, industry, or a broader range of interests. She emphasizes not only the place of each pupil in the homeroom but also of each homeroom in the school. She makes the homeroom the laboratory for the exercise of private virtue and of civic worth.

How she does these things depends on the personality factors previously mentioned and, too, upon the time at her disposal. Di-

rect methods may sometimes be called for; some teachers and some groups may find formal programs, featuring "health, wealth, and character," effective. In many groups, however, the extreme self-consciousness of adolescence will tend to invalidate such devices. Frank discussions rising out of real situations, confidence in the child's basic purposes, an attitude of friendliness and sympathy toward the *whole* child, a conditioning for truly social behavior—these supply the tools with which the homeroom teacher shares in shaping the citizen that is to be.

Do You Know Your Neighborhood?

A Suggestion for a School Magazine Project

Kathleen McCarthy

EDITOR'S NOTE: *There are many fat books that contain less of what is important about teaching than one may easily derive by implication from this article. The author is a teacher in the Thomas Junior High School, Philadelphia.*

"A STONE'S throw from the unsightly city dump there was born one day twelve years ago a boy whose life was destined to be as dull as a dictionary." Thus the brightest boy in 8B M began his autobiography. I decided to make the dictionary work a little less perfunctory in the future and to find out immediately why one very small, very highly intelligent boy (I. Q. 140) had elected to take such a vinegary view of life.

"What do you do?" he said in answer to my question. "You eat three meals a day and you go to bed."

"And in between?" "Aw, nothing ever happens in South Philadelphia. People just live here till they can move some place better."

I thought it best not to remind him of the gangster who just a few days before had been shot down within two blocks of the school. "I have a little poem at home that might give you a different slant on things, Bernard," I told him, and brought it in next day.

"MY LIFE IS COMMONPLACE"

Susan Coolidge

"A commonplace life," we say, and we sigh;

But why should we sigh as we say?

The commonplace sun in the commonplace sky

Makes up the commonplace day.

The moon and the stars are commonplace things,

And the flower that blooms and the bird that sings;

But dark were the world, and sad our lot

If the flowers failed, and the sun shone not.

He was slightly impressed, but unconvinced. I told him that a poet could find

beauty which most people passed by. I told him how a friend of Joyce Kilmer's had bet the poet he couldn't write beautiful verses about a delicatessen and how the latter had compelled his friend's admiration by describing the keeper of the delicatessen as "a knight carving cheese for his lady upstairs." "Do you think a poet could make the dumps seem beautiful?" was the poser put to me. (The city dumps is a half-block south of the school.) I gulped. "Yes," said I, "I think he could," and was saved by the bell. Bernard passed out with a look that said, "Don't think I've finished with this."

That afternoon the *Herald* staff, of which he is a member, met with the *Herald* reporters to decide what the theme of the next issue should be. (In my school the staff takes charge of editing all the copy while the reporters garner the class news, assembly notes, etc.; there is a sponsor for each group, my charge being the staff.) The previous issue had been a hero number and it proved very popular, with its stories of both real and make-believe heroes. There was a discussion as to whether the real heroes outshone those of the imagination. I told the group that I had enjoyed the true stories most and wondered if sometime we couldn't have an issue devoted entirely to actual experiences, calling it a true-story number. Only two of the group agreed with me; the rest demurred saying that it smacked too much of the paper-backed magazines they weren't allowed to read in study periods. It was, however, put on the board as a possibility along with other suggestions which included a circus number, an animal number, an adventure number, a science number. Now we were ready to take the vote. "I might just as well erase the true-story number right now," I remarked in a tone of mock

sadness, having long since learned that the school magazine is the children's brain child, not ours, and that children are very resentful if the sponsor tries to superimpose her notions and her personality on theirs. My friend Bernard was on his feet. "I think we ought to let it stay since a couple of people seem to want it. But I won't vote for it. Nothing interesting enough to write about happens to us. I think South Philadelphia's a dull, ugly place to live in." "And I think it would be possible for a person to live all his life in South Philadelphia and have that life a full and happy one," was my rejoinder. You could see the group thinking that over. "Why not a South Philadelphia issue?" some one said. It was put on the board and an overwhelming majority voted for it. Nobody seemed to realize that it was the true-story number in disguise.

We decided that instead of following our usual custom of making out a list of topics on which the students of the school might write, we should simply send a note to each English teacher apprising her of the fact that the next number was to be a South Philadelphia issue, and requesting her to ask her classes what person or place in the neighborhood interested them most, before having them write anything.

Every member of the English department reported that the discussions has been stimulating and enthusiastic. I have one class of industrial boys who because of their wildness have attained throughout the school an almost legendary distinction. They do not come into a room, rather they swoop down upon it much as the barbaric tribes bore down upon Rome. I spent one of the most profitable periods with them that I have ever known. My beginning question was, "Can you think of a place, a thing, or a person to be found in South Philadelphia and in no other part of the city?" Could they! They taught me things I hadn't learned after teaching in the section for four years. South Philadelphia had a beautiful lake district just off the dumps, where they went swim-

ming and boating. Situated there was Stone House Lane which dated from Revolutionary times and was now inhabited by a queer sect of people who chased you if you came near them. Farther west there was a house with a bullet in it which had been there since 1776. South Philadelphia had two markets, the Seventh Street Market and the Ninth Street Market, the latter in the section known as Little Italy. South Philadelphia had trackless trolleys and no other part of the city had. Had I seen the queer man known as Brother James who was crazy on the subject of religion? Did I know that Tommy Loughran lived only a few blocks away, and that Vivienne Segal was born on South Broad Street? I confess to having bored them numberless times, but I had to sweep them out of the room at the end of that period.

The question arose as to whether some of the places named by different classes really were in South Philadelphia, and there was brought to light the lamentable fact that no one knew just what the boundaries of the section were. This amused the staff mightily, my friend Bernard included, and one member said he would write to the *Bulletin* for the information. Every one watched for the answer nightly with avid eye and no fewer than six clippings were brought to me when it finally appeared. It was decided to print the reply since it was thought every one in the school should know the limits of his own neighborhood.

WHAT ARE THE BOUNDARIES OF SOUTH PHILADELPHIA?

If the party is dull and no one seems to have anything to say and every one is glancing stealthily at the clock, we suggest you ask the above question. In no time at all, you will have as many different answers as there are people. Then you can, in a superior fashion, quote this clipping which appeared in the *Evening Bulletin* in answer to a query mailed in by our Mr. Mitch.

"SOUTH PHILADELPHIA: Has no definite, official boundaries as such. The generally accepted idea of South Philadelphia is that section of city south of South Street, between Schuylkill and Delaware Rivers."

We had, of course, by this time informed the *Herald* illustrators, a club composed of children gifted in art, of the aim of the next issue, and with even more than customary vigor they set out to explore the neighborhood. They made excursions to points of interest, made sketches or photographs to work from, and came back to school to draw the finished product. The cover is the work of fifteen different boys; this pleased them mightily, as usually the work of but one boy appears, his having been selected as being superior to that of the others. The children, when the magazine came out, regarded the cover as a puzzle and immediately set to work to see how many of the places they could name. Each boy who had contributed to the cover secretly thought his picture best and would stop you in the hall to see if you could identify it.

Now it was time to get started on the writing. As an assignment I told my classes to think of the shortest possible description of the most picturesque character in the neighborhood. We spent several periods reducing the descriptions to their lowest terms and weeding out faults in wording and emphasis. The famous bad boys, who talked much better than they wrote, seemed to have a flair for criticizing other classes' papers very keenly and to have more than a flair for hitting upon fine titles. It was they who renamed a splendid paragraph badly titled "The Port of South Philadelphia," "I cover the Water Front." For a group of feature articles on famous men and women produced in South Philadelphia they suggested "South Philadelphia on Parade" and "Stars Fell on South Philadelphia." The little word pictures of people in the neighborhood they called:

THUMBNAİL SKETCHES OF REAL SOUTH
PHILADELPHIANS

(We've given them new names, but you'll know them!)

A red-cheeked, fat old man, all day he may be seen at the window reading. He looks as forbidding as an impending storm. People call him Old

Man Jones, this stern person who is as obstinate as a mule.

Henry Miller, 8B

The waffleman is mirthful and stout. He comes down our street and sings:

"Ice cream in the middle
And a waffle on top
Go home and get your pennies
And I'll give you something hot."

Amelia Ficchi, 8A

Mr. Queer is a strange person. He looks old for his fifty-one years. His curling beard comes in two points to his chest. Because he thinks cutting the nails is sinful, he wears his very long. He scorns money because it is worldly.

Marie Cozzi, 8A

A stubby creature with a hawklike nose, his keen eyes seem to pierce you. This odd-looking man wears trousers that drag the ground and a coat immensely too large for him. Sometimes he takes from a sack he carries a piece of chalk and marks the letter "X" on the pavement. Every one thinks "Napoleon's Grandson" very peculiar.

Albert Friedman, 8A

Suddenly on a quiet evening up pops Brother John. The most religious man in South Philadelphia, he rouses the people with the bugle he's blowing. His ragged beard is coarser than a lion's mane. After every lecture he kneels and prays; if any one curses, he strikes his forehead and calls on God to forgive the sinner.

Leno Mascieri, 8B

Down the paper-strewn alley hobbles the Rag Bag with, seemingly, the woes of the world on her shoulders. With every step a groan is heard; care has made her as wrinkled as old Mother Earth. Often she is surrounded by laughing children with sunlit faces, but always between the Rag Bag and happiness there is an invisible bar.

Bernard Goodman, 8B

We changed the names because the staff wag said, "If we don't they might sue." This page, too, made an interesting puzzle for every one.

Besides the description of the water front we included word pictures of the navy yard and of Little Italy, the latter written by a girl who was a problem case. In every classroom she sat and tried to stare the teacher down, looking like nothing so much

as a volcano about to erupt. She was much pleased when the paragraph was printed and confided to some one who she knew would tell me that she certainly would like to get on the *Herald* staff. This is the first instance on record of her ever being interested in anything.

The *Philadelphia Evening Bulletin*, in their reply to our letter, had given us some of the history of South Philadelphia, mentioning in the course of it that the word *Wecaco* is an Indian word meaning "pleasant place." This gave a bright girl an idea of which this is the result:

CONVERSATION BETWEEN A LITTLE INDIAN BOY AND A
SOUTH PHILADELPHIA BOY

Indian Boy—"Come, let us go 'in the valley'."

S. Phila. Boy—"In the valley! Why, there is no such place."

Indian Boy—"Yes, you have our word, 'Passyunk' which means 'in the valley'."

S. Phila. Boy—"We must have many Indian names in S. Phila."

Indian Boy—"Yes, you also have 'Wecaco', our word which means 'pleasant place'."

S. Phila. Boy—"Anyhow, I don't like Passyunk Ave., let's go up on Moyomensing Ave."

Indian Boy—"All right, we go to the 'place of the wild pigeon'."

S. Phila. Boy—"That might have meant 'place of the wild pigeon' in your day, but it suggests 'place of the jailbirds' to many people now."

Carmela Venuto, 8B

It was another Philadelphia newspaper, the *Record*, which inspired a group of feature articles on interesting personalities produced in South Philadelphia. Some one brought in a clipping from Cecil Pennyfeather's column "Perhaps It's News." Perhaps you saw it!

"Up from the streets of Little Italy a generation of Philadelphians rose to fame. Blacksmiths became bankers; peddlers, sculptors; and a little boy vendor now sits on the Common Pleas Court bench."

Cecil Pennyfeather

One boy made a list of widely known men who had been born in South Phila-

delphia. A girl wrote to Vivienne Segal and received a courteous, much-treasured note in return. It was remembered that a graduate of the school, John Liney, was well on the way toward becoming a great cartoonist, and he was interviewed. One hitherto sleepy member of the staff volunteered the information that he had a five-year-old brother who went to the University of Pennsylvania. And it was true—the child, a mathematical genius with an I.Q. of 180, was being taught in a class all by himself at the Psychological Clinic. He was brought to a staff meeting where with all the aplomb of a very old gentleman he added for us five groups of three units each—and added them in his head, too, putting down the entire answer at once. We published his picture together with our interview, and in amusing juxtaposition we placed the photograph of the 87-year-old great-grandmother of a 9B girl who proudly wrote that her ancestor had lived all her life in South Philadelphia, had gone to Quaker school in horsecars, had as a girl entertained the Union soldiers at Washington Avenue Wharf, had seen the body of Lincoln lying in state, and hoped to live to see the Broad Street subway completed. The photographs of the old, old lady and the little boy every one found very fascinating, as they did also a group of pictures which made a very decorative page titled "The Seven Wonders of South Philadelphia."

All this time there had been hovering over me the shadow of the dumps. The problem of making them poetical was, I must admit, an appalling one. I was much relieved when a paper called "A Treasure Hunt in the Dumps" was turned in, revealing that it was here that many of the school's rising young philatelists had found some of their finest stamps. The editor-in-chief wrote a fine editorial which seemed to throw a different light on this miserable expanse. I am appending it because I think the thought very childlike and beautiful.

AT THE END OF THE RAINBOW

Rainbows rise even in South Philadelphia, although some people think this almost impossible. Saturday evening after a downfall of refreshing rain, the sun set in the western sky and cast a beautiful rainbow across the heavens—a stripe of glowing red-orange against a dazzling blue and green, and last a bright yellow. I followed this gorgeous array of colors and it struck me suddenly that the rainbow came to rest on the dumps.

There is a legend that at the end of the rainbow a treasure is to be found. It seems strange that Saturday's rainbow ended in the dumps of South Philadelphia. If some one heard the word "dumps" without even visualizing the place, it would sound dreadful; but our dumps are attractive spots in which to pass time. At least sunflowers and rainbows think so—.

Dorothy Finkelstein, 9B *Editor-in-Chief*

I read this to the doubting Bernard and had the pleasure of seeing a gleam of interest in his eye. I referred to the *Bulletin's* answer to our query and asked the group to try to picture the lowly dumps as they must have been when the Swedish people settled here and even before, when the red men roamed across them. "The dumps have seen many fine sights," I said. "If they could speak they'd have lots to tell us."

"Can I write that up?" said Bernard.

"Surely," said I, "and so may you, Martin"—to another boy whose imagination had caught at the idea. The "despiser of the dumps" was much disappointed when his classmate turned in this piece of work which, while a bit high-flown in spots, I consider a remarkably fine piece of work.

RISE AND FALL OF THE DUMPS

Martin Moskowitz, 8B

Majestically the red man roamed my green glades, hunting my deer, and planting their coarse food. At night there glared forth their ritual fires, emitting a weird splendor to the somber sky.

These obsolete kings of the forest were gradually subdued by their wilier brethren, the white men. Wooden houses replaced the primitive wigwams and tepees.

A new era flourished, newer generations sprang up, men in tight-fitting trousers and women in taut bodices attended dignified parties upon my spacious lawns.

They, too, passed on and with them passed the brief period of pageantry that I had known.

To the north, the metropolis of Philadelphia rose before my eyes.

It became a city of industry, with its coffers filled to capacity.

And I?—I was to be of service as a refuse deposit. You who call me the "Dumps," remember that the minuet has been danced upon me!

And I shall not forget, as careless children play upon me, the days when the glorious red heroes stalked my leaf-carpeted woods and hunted the swift deer.

This paper is getting out of hand. I wish I had time to enumerate everything that went into the making of this magazine. I should like to tell you of the fun the children had in making up two acrostics for South Philadelphia, one an optimist's, the other a pessimist's. I should like to tell you of their surprise when an ingenious staff member disclosed that the parents of the students had come from fourteen different foreign countries, and of the delight of the children whose names were published together with the names of the countries from which their parents had emigrated. "From all the world," she began by saying, "these people came, to settle in South Philadelphia." I should like, I repeat, to tell you many things, but I think I have enumerated enough to make my point, that children write well when they are keenly interested, that they are keenly interested in their own neighborhood, and that any school will find it very fruitful to run a neighborhood issue.

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Assembly Programs Integrated with the Instructional Activities of the School

Nora E. Dodson

EDITOR'S NOTE: In Hazleton, Pennsylvania, Miss Dodson is head of the English department in the Senior High School. If she has left out any of the possibilities of integrating assemblies with school subjects they can be added, perhaps, in the vigorous spirit in which the author has written about what is possible in Hazleton. Here is an article for our readers who want "brass tacks"—here is an article that gets down to cases.

IN A LARGE school the assembly is the only means of bringing all the pupils together. It is, therefore, the biggest factor in creating a feeling of unity among them. It gives pupils the thrill of realizing that they are part of a large group. Besides helping the child to identify himself with the great unit which is his school, the assembly programs can help him to realize—perhaps only subconsciously—that his school subjects, as well as his extracurricular activities, are all a part of his education and hence vital to his culture and to his success in life.

If the various classes are allowed to be responsible for many of these programs, there will be a greater interest among the members of such classes, an increased respect for those subjects on the part of the other pupils, and a deeper appreciation of the whole curriculum—in short, a unification of the entire school.

One of the most difficult problems of school administration is this one of integrating the assembly programs with the instructional activities of the school. Too often the pupils look forward to the assembly as merely entertainment. Yet unless the programs really contribute to pupils' growth, the time is not being used to the best advantage. If, however, there is a carryover from assembly to classroom and from classroom to assembly, the school can become a closely knit unit, of which the assembly programs express the spirit.

Frequently the assembly provides the inspiration for valuable class activities; there is then no difficulty in securing motivation. For example, the art classes may make posters advertising an assembly play; or they may print large cards to be used on the stage to label parts of the program; or they may paint scenery or design costumes. In these activities there is no need to urge children to learn the principles involved; they seek the teacher of their own accord. Similarly, the girls of the home-economics classes may make simple costumes for plays and tableaux. These pupils thus develop a personal interest in the programs even though they may not, perhaps, be actual participants.

The assembly programs may project themselves into instructional activities of the commercial department also. Classes in stenography may become deeply enough interested to try taking notes. These may be extremely elementary—limited at first, perhaps, to the remarks of the chairman; as proficiency develops and interest grows, it becomes a game—pupils vying with one another to see who can take the most notes most accurately. The correction and transcription of the notes in the classroom will be interesting and instructive, and at the same time will link those classes with the assembly. This applies also to the criticism of the transcribed material in the English classes from the standpoint of English acceptable in both content and form.

Assembly programs may carry over into the English classes in another way. An oral lesson may be a discussion of some topic presented in the assembly; for example, an assembly talk on safety may be a point of departure for accounts of personal experiences. Written work may take the form of comment on the program, provided no petty

criticisms creep in; it may thus develop critical judgment along with instruction in English composition. Classes in journalism may be asked to write accounts of programs, the best account being used for the local paper or the school paper.

In the civics classes, too, something of the assembly programs can be utilized. There may be an assembly debate upon the question of world peace, upon disarmament, upon any other of the numerous questions confronting the country today. Boys and girls in the audience form—or have already formed—their own opinions. What better than to have an expression of these opinions when the civics class meets? Usually there is profuse quoting from the assembly debate; an excellent carryover is the result. In another way the assembly can be integrated with the activities of these classes; lessons in good citizenship can be unobtrusively drawn from the various slight incidents which are bound to happen occasionally in any assembly: applause at the wrong place; tittering at a serious point in a play; annoyance caused by some one's talking.

Great as are the opportunities for integrating the assembly with the class activities, those for carrying over the class activities into the assembly are greater and perhaps more obvious. Most of the devices mentioned here have been successfully used in the Hazleton Senior High School.

The art classes may give tableaux representing famous pictures: Reynolds's *Age of Innocence* and the *Strawberry Girl*, Gainsborough's the *Blue Boy*, Millet's *The Angelus* and *The Gleaners*, Madame Lebrun's portrait of herself and her daughter, Whistler's Portrait of his Mother. Here there will be integration with the sewing classes also. Art students may introduce and explain the tableaux, calling attention to important and interesting facts about artist and picture. Or actual pictures, large enough to be seen from the stage, may be exhibited and similarly explained.

The commercial department may give a demonstration of dictation and transcription: one student may dictate and several others take notes, transcribe them, and read the finished letter. This in itself is interesting to the school; if the material is carefully chosen, it may be either instructive or amusing, or perhaps both. An original play (written possibly in the English class) may be given to show the accepted practice in a business office; the proper way to apply personally for a position; the best method of approach in selling to various types of people. If in such plays the correct and the incorrect methods are contrasted, interest is heightened without detracting from the value. Commercial classes may present a playlet or a dramatized conversation on some question of commercial law. It is interesting to note how many children have experiences which tie up directly with this subject: a magazine sent unsolicited to the home; a car brought for repairs to a garage and taken out without payment of the bill; a ticket on a car unwittingly parked in violation of a local traffic regulation. The assembly also gives pupils a real opportunity to use what they have learned in their other commercial subjects; they may practise the principles of advertising and salesmanship when they urge attendance at some school or club activity, or the purchase of tickets for football or basketball games. Although the assembly should not degenerate into a mere series of announcements, the pupil gets a real benefit from making a short, forceful speech in support of some favorite activity. When a commercial student makes such a speech, it may be discussed as to content and form in his advertising or salesmanship classes.

Announcements made by pupils may be criticized in the English classes from much the same standpoint; for, English being basic, almost any subject is grist for its mill. Speeches—formal and informal—and anything else which pupils have composed should be so discussed. These discussions,

however, should be characterized by a spirit of fairness, and pupils should be led to make unbiased criticisms.

Creative expression, so important in the development of the child, carries over in many other ways from the English classes to the assembly. Original plays, written under the supervision of the teacher, may deal with almost any topic; and, since English affords almost unlimited opportunities for integration with other subjects, may help to integrate the assembly with practically everything else in the curriculum. Then there may be a program in which original poems are read; if, for example, a poetry contest has been held, the winners may read their poems. Interest is added if the prizes are awarded at this time. If the school engages in, say, an interschool oratorical contest, the representative may be selected in an assembly where the candidates deliver their orations. If the school belongs to a debating league, the assembly program may be a debate—two teams of the school debating the question which will later be considered at the interschool contest. Aside from motivating the work in English, such programs interest the school in oratory and debate.

Literary appreciation also carries over into the assembly from both English and public-speaking classes. Many one-act plays, and many cuttings from long plays with a pupil giving synopses between cuttings, lend themselves admirably to presentation in very limited situations, for they require no elaborate costumes or scenery. If the children select the plays (with the help of their English or their public-speaking teacher), their growing literary appreciation will integrate their class activities with the assembly; conversely, seeing these plays will tend to develop a taste for good drama which will carry over into their literature classes. This is true of the dramatization of famous stories. If, however, pupils write the dramatized version of a story, they gain the added benefit of creative expression.

Drama will also integrate the assembly programs with foreign-language study. Plays which combine a modern foreign language with some English will interest the school and help to motivate the class activities. Good foreign-language plays will develop literary appreciation in these classes and will also increase pupils' ability to speak the language with fluency and expression. If these classes present original plays, there is the advantage of increased ability in composition. All foreign-language plays, however, should have plenty of action; for a large part of the audience will not understand what is being said. Another effective program may consist of the singing of Christmas carols and folk songs in foreign languages; an added touch of reality is secured if the participants appear in costume. Then there are programs in which pupils tell, in English, of the customs in other lands; or in which original plays are woven about some historical or mythical event. For example, a playlet written by a Latin class may represent an art gallery, with "statues" of Hebe, Clio, and other mythological characters. Again, integrating the instructional activities of these classes with the music department, there may be stories of certain operas, with selections played by the school orchestra or a string quartet, or on the phonograph.

The history department, too, can capitalize children's love of the drama by enacting great historical events. It might be said in passing that not too great a proportion of the assembly programs should be devoted to the presentation of plays, lest pupils fail to develop the proper attitude toward less showy programs. The activities of the social-science classes may be reflected in talks or orations delivered on such occasions as Constitution Day, Columbus Day, Washington's and Lincoln's Birthdays, and on other days when civic consciousness is emphasized.

Some of the activities of the vocational home-economics classes may be interestingly

and profitably dramatized. There may be explanations of various homework projects; for example, renovating a room or planning the evening meal over a period of time. There may be demonstrations showing how an unbecoming or partly worn garment may be improved; what colors harmonize; what styles or colors are suitable to various types of people. Another program may be a "fashion parade," in which every girl participates, wearing a dress which she has made and, perhaps, designed.

In much the same way, the boys of the vocational training classes may demonstrate a phase of some trade—printing, perhaps—explaining how "cuts" are printed. Or they may exhibit objects made in the shop. An instructive program may consist of the showing of two or three simple pieces of furniture—end tables, for instance—accompanied by an explanation of the entire process of manufacture. One boy may tell of the kinds of wood, exhibiting samples to show the grain; one may explain the process of planing the wood and shaping it; another, with samples, may explain the kinds of wood used as veneer; another may describe the polishing, which enhances the natural beauty of the wood. Often these boys, so talented manually, do not show much interest in the content subjects. Yet many of them will do highly creditable work on such occasions—proving again that if the pupil has something in which he is genuinely interested, he will find acceptable words in which to express himself.

The mathematics classes are, perhaps, the most difficult to integrate with the assembly. Original plays or demonstrations of interesting theorems probably offer the best possibilities.

On the other hand, the subject of music really presents no problem; for music, which is being taught as a regular subject in an increasingly large number of schools, is one of the most popular in the curriculum and likewise one of the most enjoyable features of the assembly programs. If the school has

an orchestra or a band or a chorus, the public appearance of these organizations is an added incentive to enthusiastic practice periods.

The physical-training activities may also be integrated with the assembly by means of demonstrations and exhibitions; the school will delight in seeing its athletic heroes do some tumbling, for instance, or some spring-board high jumping. Or there may be tableaux. The participants, covered first with cold cream and then with a preparation which will give them the appearance of statues, may represent, for example, the discus thrower, the archer, the shot-put, the tennis player, and many others.

The public-speaking course is naturally a close ally of the assembly program. Assembly announcements, mentioned before, can be criticized in these classes from the standpoint, not only of correctness, but especially of effectiveness. Any student of this subject will welcome the opportunity to appear before the school. Pupils who preside over the assembly have a chance to practise what they are learning in the classroom. Furthermore, excellent programs of speeches, poems, orations, and plays may be given with almost professional finish by these students.

The science classes may interestingly demonstrate principles of biology, botany, chemistry, and physics. An account, in simple language, of scientific facts, such as the story of the life of the bee, will entertain as well as instruct. These talks, if accompanied by the showing of slides, will be all the more valuable.

Thus practically every class in the school may have its share in adding to the interest and the value of the assembly programs. Obviously, the more pupils participating, the greater the personal interest and as a result the greater the personal benefits.

All teachers, no matter what their subject, try to develop in their pupils, besides a knowledge of subject matter, certain qualities and abilities which can definitely be promoted by practise in appearing before the

entire school. Poise, a pleasant voice, clear enunciation, good taste in manner and speech—all of these, held as aims in the classroom, are recognized as being especially valuable in the searching publicity of the assembly platform. Practising for a program brings out, or at least shows pupils the need for, toleration of other people's opinions, a sense of responsibility, the power to think clearly. Furthermore, if an assembly program appeals to the best type of pupils in the school, those participating will recognize the value of aiming high—for they will intuitively realize that the cheap, shoddy kind of entertainment will not long be popular.

All in all, the practice of basing some of the assembly programs upon the instructional activities of the school is of tremen-

dous value to both the classroom and the assembly. It motivates the classwork. It helps teacher and pupils, working together, to become better acquainted and hence less formal in their relations. It causes pupils to have a personal interest in the assembly; it makes the programs not only interesting and entertaining, but instructive; it acquaints pupils with their school and with the scope of its instructional activities.

Thus it unifies the school. Pupils think, not of so many individual little groups, but of the entire school. With the right kinds of pupils as leaders, the feeling of unity becomes real enthusiasm—genuine school spirit. Children sincerely love their school and highly respect the principles for which it stands.

"Regimentation" and Comparable Educational Measurement

Winston B. Stephens

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Many of our readers will appreciate the following timely discussion of the uses and abuses of new-type measuring devices. Mr. Stephens is with the Educational Records Bureau and has a right to speak as one having authority.*

ANY SCIENTIFIC ATTEMPT to make comparisons between two similar objects involves measurement of some sort, and the more accurate and reliable that measurement is, the more trustworthy are the comparisons. The nature of educational products is such, however, that there has always been a great deal of suspicion regarding every effort made to measure them, especially since it was easily discovered that different instructors in the same field had widely different views, not only of what should be taught and how, but of the relative values of various questions and of the answers given to them.

The necessity for establishing some satisfactory method of appraising the scholastic preparedness of candidates for admission to college forced upon American secondary schools over three decades ago the creation of an official coöperative examining agency whose duty it has been to set up curriculum requirements, to prepare examinations, and to provide for their administration and grading. It has been repeatedly pointed out that the College Entrance Examination Board brought order out of chaos, so far as the scholastic standards of the better American secondary schools were concerned. In spite of this, we have recently heard from many sources that the regular use of College Board examinations has had a tendency to keep instruction within too close confines, to encourage "cramming" and the development of special examination-taking techniques, and to thwart the efforts of progressive teachers in developing new and worth-while

methods and materials in their fields. There are some who seem to forget not only the inestimable value of the work the Board has done, but also the seemingly hopeless tangle in which admissions procedures were before it tackled its job, and who are now calling loudly for release from the necessity of meeting a standard educational measurement of any kind. They would be the sole judges of the fitness of their graduates to do satisfactory college work and also of the merit and effectiveness of their own methods of instruction.

Such independent individuality appeals strongly to all of us brought up in the American tradition. We instinctively rebel at prohibitions and prescriptions. The very word "regimentation" makes us uncomfortable, as if implying, if not the strait-jacket, at least the ball-and-chain lock step. Yet sober common sense tells us that social living and coöperative progress demand a wise and benevolent regulation of a great many of our activities and the mutual relinquishment of certain special privileges, exemptions, and exceptions. This principle applies in educational matters as well as in our social and economic life. It seems impossible to believe that any one would wittingly wish for a return to the conditions that prevailed before the advent of "College Boards," "Regents," and other examinations officially set up for use in a large number of schools related by some common educational task or objective.

There is much of justice in the complaints of even the bitterest critics; such justice as there is, however, lies not in condemning the use of examining material prepared for interschool application, but in condemning its *misuses*. Of these there are many, and most have been freely and vigorously aired

of late. Not least among them is a tendency that is the outgrowth of a subtle perversion of the original, and obviously the principal, function of examinations. They were primarily intended as instruments to measure accomplishment after a period of instruction. The penalties following inferior or even mediocre performance, however, soon turned the attention of student and instructor alike to the possibility of using examination questions, first as study helps and then even as teaching guides. In one, at least, of our greatest universities files of former examinations in all courses have been maintained for many years and few and foolish are the students who have not made use of this record of the tendencies in teaching and examining emphasis when preparing for the periodic ordeals of February or June. From this practice, with which few would find serious fault, it is but a short step to the use of old examination questions for class discussions and teaching guides. At this point the real trouble begins, though to condemn even this procedure unreservedly would be unjustifiable, for much obvious good may result from it. The danger, and it is a very real one, is that it may have a tendency to strip both teaching and learning of desirable individuality and to confine them within too narrow and inflexible limits.

To many who depend too greatly upon the guidance thus afforded, the need for gradual changes in the direction and emphasis of their teaching do not become apparent until suddenly they awaken to find themselves and their students out of tune with the customs and demands of the day. It goes without saying that certain teachers will always be keenly alert to the necessity for constantly adjusting their work to changing needs, and others will always follow the line of least resistance, whatever the prevailing practice may be with respect to the form and use of examinations, but the important and unfortunate point is that the gradual increase in the habit of using expertly prepared and widely recognized

examining material as teaching guides has led many instructors, who at heart are alert and progressive, to become unconsciously limited more effectively than they realize in the scope and objectives of their teaching.

Since the introduction of the use of standardized tests of the comparable or so-called objective type, the question has frequently been raised as to whether they, too, would be liable to become in any sense goals of instruction and so would assist in the strangulation of educational initiative. It has been pointed out that, if there were any serious probability of such a development, the restrictive influence of such tests would be of a sort far more to be feared than that exerted by the best of the essay-type examinations, especially those of a comprehensive nature. Since comparable achievement tests are at present limited in great degree to the measurement of certain factual knowledge and of individual examples of the reasoning control of that knowledge, and are not yet capable of revealing many of the other educational values of equal, if not even of greater, importance, it would be a matter of grave concern if teachers should attempt to adjust their instructional methods to conform in any way with the limited approach to the real values in their subjects provided by the questioning technique of such tests.

It has been rather generally the belief of those concerned with the construction and administration of comparable tests that this particular danger would not materialize to any appreciable extent, though it has been recognized that there are in the teaching profession a few who will persist in sacrificing permanent values for the sake of temporary and even doubtful advantages that they think may come to them from coaching their classes to do well on specific examination material. At the outset the incentive was not nearly so great to coach for objective tests as for officially set essay-type examinations, since entrance to college and other vital decisions hinged almost entirely upon the results of the latter. Recently, however,

since coöperative testing enterprises have been instituted, including State-wide programs of a somewhat competitive nature, objective tests have played a far more important rôle and the temptation to try to coach for them has consequently been increased. It is pertinent and timely, therefore, to consider this question in some of its more important aspects.

First of all, it should be pointed out that objective tests were neither intended nor constructed to be in any sense satisfactory goals of instruction. Teachers tempted to use them as such should be most emphatically warned that, though they may be of very great value as measurement instruments, both in making diagnoses and in recording development and growth, they deal with only certain limited educational elements and cannot, therefore, be regarded as representative of inclusive educational aims.

Secondly, in the nature of partial reassurance to those who still feel that there may be many who will prefer not to heed this warning, there are certain other considerations that it is well to keep in mind. Important among these is the fact that the most successful preparation for any previously unseen edition of a series of comparable objective tests is likely to be the broadest and most thorough course of study in the subject it covers. The best tests of this type are designed to sample adequately, by means of a large number of questions, a range of material which in difficulty, and frequently in content as well, extends beyond the scope of any single year of study. When such tests exist in a series of comparable forms it would be a considerable task to coach pupils to answer correctly all the questions on known editions in preparation for a new and unknown form, and a thankless one because such direct coaching would be in connection with more or less isolated items, few if any of which would be likely to reappear on a new form of the test. It is possible, of course, to familiarize a class with the general char-

acter and range of questions asked, as well as with the form in which they appear and must be answered. All this, however, scarcely scratches the surface of the vital matter of course content, and for most teachers would seem to be hardly worth the expenditure of any time and trouble.

One of the most important considerations which the makers of the better comparable tests have had in mind has been the construction of tests that would actually serve to *free* teachers from the defined restrictions usually imposed in connection with preparation for other types of examinations. It has been more difficult to accomplish what is desirable in this regard in certain fields of study than in others, chiefly because of the prevailing curriculum set-up, in which we find so many single-year subjects, especially in the fields of mathematics, science, and the social studies. Even in the preparation of tests in these subjects, however, the attempt is made to select items of such wide range of difficulty, and so well distributed over the entire field, that students prepared well by any method or by any teacher may be fairly tested on satisfactorily equal terms. The basis of selection of test items is made as broad as possible and as representative as possible of a composite of all the important teaching trends.

There are times, of course, when no examination or test constructed for general interinstitutional use can measure successfully all of what is being attempted in a given local situation, particularly one that involves experimentation with hitherto unused materials or information. Almost invariably, however, there is a sufficient number of essential elements in common in experimental and traditional curricula so that it is eminently worth while to measure these in order to provide some sort of control by which gains or losses in permanent values may be detected. As rapidly as new materials and methods become well enough organized and are adopted by a large enough

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group of institutions, new tests will be developed to meet more adequately and precisely the newly developed needs.

The results of significant educational experiments should not be left to subjective judgment alone, as indispensable as that is in educational appraisal. Because of its repeatedly proved unreliability it should be supplemented by some type of measurement that eliminates this particular fault so far as possible. The character of well-constructed comparable objective tests makes them especially well adapted to perform this function, so long as it is distinctly remembered that they are not to be expected to measure the total results of an experiment but only those elements common to the new and the old procedures.

Among the tests that are likely to be most generally helpful in measuring achievement and growth in fields of study in which the teaching approach is being changed under experimentation are those which cover most completely the entire field rather than its separate parts. In subjects that have been taught cumulatively, such as English and foreign languages, tests of this sort have for some years been used all the way from grade seven in some schools through the sophomore year in college. Tests in general science have also been made available and more recently others have appeared in general mathematics, in world history, and in contemporary affairs. As long-range, comprehensive tests become more widely used and as the teaching aims within the fields they cover become more definitely identified with general cultural and educational growth, rather than with specific temporary performances, their contribution as valuable measurements of such growth will be greatly increased.

Because of this definite effort on the part of test makers to extend the limits of materials sampled in each test so that they may become better measures of growth during a term of years, as well as of knowledge acquired within any given period, it is becoming more difficult to misuse them as direct teaching instruments. One of the most frequently heard complaints from teachers who do not fully understand the functions of such tests is that they not only fail to measure all that they are teaching, but are built to measure much that they are not teaching; in other words, they do not "fit the course of study." Such complaints reveal the necessity for acquainting teachers more thoroughly with the aims of objective testing and the way in which these aims depart in some respects from those of the traditional examination. Once the true functions of such instruments are more fully understood, there should be far less temptation to try to use them for purposes for which they are not designed, and the folly of regarding them as in any sense suitable as instructional goals should be readily apparent to all.

In objective testing of the right sort, therefore, even though the tests used may be administered at the same time in hundreds or thousands of schools, we may find release from regimentation rather than another kind of ligature to bind us to what is and has been. We need merely to understand more fully the various purposes for which our different tools are designed so that we may use them with greater accuracy and profit, not mistaking measuring devices for outlines of study any more than a tailor would think of regarding his tape measure as a desirable pattern after which to model the garment he is fashioning.

Materials Review

John Carr Duff

This is the first "review" of educational material offered by this magazine. The purpose and plan of the new Materials Review section was set forth in detail in the September issue. The reviews presented here will usually be of items just being introduced on the market. Finger Paint, which is the subject of this first review, has been out for some time; but it is not yet so widely known as it deserves to be, and there are many things yet to be written about its more or less unique qualities. Moreover, there are advantages for the reviewer and the readers in using as the first subject an item that it is already somewhat familiar.

FINGERS CAME BEFORE BRUSHES

Newton saw an apple fall and discovered gravity. Ruth Faison Shaw saw a little boy's decorations on the bathroom door made with fingers dipped into some colored medicine, and she discovered finger painting. Over a period of years she experimented with various substances until she found just the right ones to compose the new medium now offered as Shaw Finger Paint.¹ She maintains her own studio at 212 East 49th Street, New York City, and is in demand at educational conferences all over the country—indeed, all over the world—as a speaker on the uses of this new art medium.

Finger Paint is apparently made on a base of finely ground clay, to which is added some kind of a gluey stiffener and pigment—the formula, of course, is the property of Miss Shaw and the manufacturers. It is about the consistency of heavy cold starch, and its most important quality is its viscosity, which varies according to the amount of water the mixture contains. The paint is most effective when used on such paper as the distributor sells for the purpose, a fairly hard paper with a glazed surface. The paper is dampened all over and then the paint applied. The amount to use depends on the effect you wish to secure, but a lump about the size of a walnut will do for a sheet of paper 16 x 22 inches. The fingers are used to spread the paint more or less evenly over the surface of the paper. The paint should "run over" the edges of the paper; that is, there should be no white rim, but the design should reach to the edges and go a little beyond.

When the paint is distributed all over the paper the viscous quality will become noticeable. The designs are made by dabbing with the finger tips, by trailing two or three fingers through the paint

in a continuous motion, by drawing a wriggling line with the tip of one finger, by any combination of an almost infinite variety of techniques which are quickly discovered by experimenting. The finger tip drawn through the paint does not leave a white track but, on account of the viscous quality of the medium, leaves what resembles a pictorial representation of a narrow cylinder seen in a bright light. There is produced, almost magically it seems, the illusion of depth, of a third dimension. Working with water colors or tempera it would be almost impossible to produce the same effects; working with oil colors, conventionally applied with brushes, it would take an endless amount of time to paint such illusions as are possible in finger paint with a few quick strokes.

The illusion of space, of depth, of distance may be improved by using a varying intensity of color, or by using two or more colors together. The pigment used in Shaw Finger Paint has the great virtue of being nonpoisonous, and it leaves no stain whatever on the fingers. But it is not strong enough to produce some of the effects that we wanted, and in trying out the medium we found that a drop or two of tempera, judiciously added, gave a certain vitality that the finger paint lacks.

It is a supreme virtue of finger painting that one sheet of paper and one daub of the medium will be enough for a great succession of pictures. When you have made a design, you appraise it, and if it is not just what you want you distribute the paint over the paper again, adding a few drops of water and begin all over. When you have got some effect you wish to preserve, you stop painting, put the painting out flat on a sheet of cardboard to dry, and get out paper and paint for another succession of experiments. While the effects are not entirely accidental, there is an element of chance that enters even where the artist is familiar with the techniques peculiar to the medium. Therefore, the artistry consists not only in making a design but in knowing just when it is complete. No erasures are possible. You may add but you cannot subtract. The design grows more

¹ Shaw Finger Paint, made and distributed by Binney and Smith Company, 41 East 42d Street, New York City. In six colors (red, blue, green, brown, and black). One-pint can, \$1.15; half pint, \$.70; gallon jar, 6.00. Sold also in other convenient sizes and in sets. Prices do not include transportation. Discount on quantity lots. Descriptive circular sent on request.

and more complex as you work on it and tends to lose the simplicity and emphases that are essential to good art. Finger painting provides good practice in learning when to stop. It is good discipline.

Finger paint gives the best effects under the skilled fingers of a competent artist who uses its unique qualities and recognizes its limitations. It is not useful for making pictorial representations, for drawing realistic landscapes, or whatnot. It belongs to the artists who are competent in making what we know as abstractions. It is whimsical. It has another world, dreamlike, "Roxyesque" quality that gives it distinct importance as an experimental medium; but too many people who use it, including most art teachers, use it in a way which makes one think of a sea gull attempting a ballet dance.

It should be noted here that, whatever results, aesthetic and psychological and educational, are possible from the use of Finger Paint in the primary grades, it is a medium capable of refinements of technique which only artists, and fairly ingenious ones too, will be able to employ with the optimum effect. That is, anybody can use it, just as anybody can model with clay; but the results produced by the novice, child, or adult will not stand comparison with the work of a competent artist who has creatively employed the distinctive characteristics of the medium.

Fundamentally, in education especially, it is not the painting but the painter that is important. If finger paint permits some new and interesting effects on paper, its effects are even more interesting on the personality of the painter, especially a beginner. In the first place, it is fun. In the second place, it is a new medium toward which the experimenter has not developed any mind-set, any inhibitions, any conviction of his own inadequacy. This makes it a valuable medium to offer high-

school students, who have usually become too self-conscious about everything they attempt. With the exception of the few who believe themselves to be artists, almost all adolescents would rather take medicine than try to express an idea graphically, pictorially. But finger painting has a hypnotic effect—the individual forgets himself, frequently, and becomes wholly absorbed in the designs which are appearing under his finger tips. His discovery that he has *created* these designs is gratifying and stimulating. Conceivably, such success may serve to restore self-confidence buried under years of real or fancied failure. These psychological possibilities are largely distinct from the aesthetic possibilities of finger painting and are being studied now in psychiatric clinics.

At present the price of Shaw Finger Paint is too high. Few schools can afford to buy as much of it as they should like to use. Paperhanger's paste plus tempera will give a workable substitute, but the Shaw product has distinct qualities that make it hard to imitate. In the Shaw studio they are developing some interesting uses of finger paint in the craft line, using it to decorate wood, beaverboard, lamp shades, trays, and so forth.

In conclusion, the reviewer recommends finger paint highly for educational use. There are very few materials for instruction which have such a wide range of appeal. (From my notebook: "You must come over to our house next Thursday afternoon—Grandma is going to have an exhibition of her finger paintings.") There are few materials which give satisfaction so quickly. There are few materials which bring forth more readily whatever one has of native ability to create graphically. If your school has not discovered finger paint, I recommend that you get some and try it out first at a faculty tea (and write and tell me how well it worked in thawing out the faculty inhibitions).

School Law Review

Daniel R. Hodgdon, Ph.D., J.D.

Member of the Bar of New York State

In Loco Parentis

By immemorial usage and by law a teacher or schoolmaster is regarded as standing *in loco parentis* (in place of the parent) for certain definite purposes and within certain definite limits. Within the limits and for these purposes a parent surrenders all lawful rights to his child when the latter becomes of school age and enters the public school. The teacher in many respects, to be discussed later, is mother and father to the child while he remains within the compulsory school age or is submitted to the mercy of the pedagogue at any age. To reach the compulsory school age or to surrender voluntarily, or be involuntarily surrendered in care of the teacher is to have one under the authority of a *quasi* parent whose power and duties in certain respects are like those of natural parents and even in certain cases take precedent over ones of natural parents or guardians. See *Boyd v. State* 88 Ala 169.

In other words, from the day a pupil enters school, he has two sets of parents; one his natural parents from whom he may inherit certain traits and characteristics, and, the other, the school teacher or his *in loco parentis* who may or may not proceed to make him over in her or his own image. To what extent does the schoolmaster, principal, or teacher stand *in loco parentis* to children under his charge? The general rule is that a teacher charged with the education of the child may exercise such powers of direction, control, restraint, influence, and correction over him as may be reasonably necessary to enable the teacher to perform his duties as a teacher and accomplish the purpose of education.

From early days the teacher has been given parental authority over his school on the theory that without such authority there could be no school. It is related that a famous old schoolmaster was visited by King Charles II who failed to remove his hat upon entering the room. "Sire," requested the teacher, "pull off thy hat in my school, for if my scholars discover that the king is above me in authority, they will soon cease to respect me." The king recognizing that the schoolmaster was supreme in the domain of the schoolroom instantly removed his hat to demonstrate by example that a schoolmaster's authority should be

respected even by a king. This indeed is a high form of autocracy in which the school teacher stands, when kings must bow to the dictates of the pedagogue in his sphere.

GOVERNMENT OF SCHOOL IS LEGALLY NOT DEMOCRATIC

The law as promulgated by the courts, however, suggests that the government of a school should be patriarchal rather than despotic. If the law is to consider the public school as a monarchy, it should be a limited one and not absolute. Nowhere does the law uphold the principle that a public school is a democracy or entertain that theory except in a very remote way. The power to conduct a school on democratic principle is left to the teacher but even then none of the patriarchal or autocratic powers of the teacher to administer the public school are lost. The teacher may become the kindest and most beloved monarch and give to his pupils liberties that are unusual; he may conduct a school on the most democratic principles; yet in the eyes of the law he remains the limited autocrat with absolute inherent power within the purview of his duties as a *de jure* teacher.

Little has been said concerning student government or student council which has to some extent delegated authority of the teacher. It is extremely doubtful that a teacher can delegate any of his powers as the person *in loco parentis*. Whether a pupil can be compelled to obey rules and regulations adopted by a student council or student government would seem to depend on whether the rules or regulations were considered those of the teacher and whether they represented the voice of the teacher speaking through the pupil-governing body. The law has not as yet been definitely construed on these matters. See *Anderson v. State* (1859), 40 Tenn (3 Head) 455; 75 AmDec 774.

The rights of the school teacher, principal, or schoolmaster in respect to government and discipline are analogous to masters of vessels, or master and apprentice, or parent and child. He may do whatever a parent may do and to the same extent for the purpose of maintaining proper decorum within his domain and to administer his school for the purpose of educating the pupils in his charge, but he has no delegated powers beyond those necessary for the performance of his duties. See *Stevens v. Fassett* (1847), 27 Maine 266.

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Book Reviews

Phillip W. L. Cox, Editor

Federal Aid for Education, compiled and edited by E. C. BUEHLER. New York: Noble and Noble, Inc., 1934, vi + 276 pages.

If democracy is dependent on the applied intelligence of the people, it is necessary for the schools to deal with subjects that may be cogently argued pro and contra. As a preparation and a stimulus for such procedure, it is desirable that all teachers and all those who are preparing to teach should study carefully both the bases of their own beliefs and also the justifications for contrary opinions.

In the volume here reviewed may be found material dealing with a problem that properly commands the attention of all alert citizens, especially those peculiarly interested in the future of public education. It includes briefs for the affirmative and the negative, questions and answers regarding the factual bases, a full annotated bibliography, and eighteen representative articles which present the points of view of competent persons of differing outlooks and beliefs.

The American Way, by J. W. STUDEBAKER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935, xi + 206 pages, \$2.00.

Every successful, or even partially successful, effort to lead men to substitute tolerance and intelligent inquiry and calm persuasion for violence and emotional appeal must give us hope that our democracy shall not be lost. Every coöperative action looking toward achievements for the social good without restraining any man of good will from challenging the purposes or procedures of the action must arouse the desire of vigorous democrats to emulate it.

In the volume here reviewed Commissioner Studebaker explains the philosophy and instrumentation of the project in public enlightenment carried on for two years at Des Moines, Iowa, where he has been superintendent of schools for the past fifteen years and more. This project of public forums or open meetings is held on regular schedule throughout the year, usually in school buildings. Professional leaders present current social, economic, or political problems and help to guide the discussion of these subjects by those who attend. There were both a neighborhood and a central forum.

In Chapter IV, the procedure and results of these forums are carefully explained; in Chapter V, the results of a survey of the attendance and

benefits are set forth; and in Chapter VI, the author sets forth convincing argument for support of forums by the Federal Government. He does not insist that forums are the only way or even the chief way that is American. That democracy at work in the Des Moines forums is a typically American way, we may all of us hope.

The Psychology of Adolescence, by KARL G. GARRISON. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934, xxi + 377 pages.

This substantial book consists of two parts: The Development of the Individual, and Personality Development. In Part I are nine chapters dealing with the phenomena of adolescence, its physical and mental development, its motivations and social development, and its interests and moral and religious growth. In Part II, are five chapters dealing with personality and mental disturbances, hygiene of adolescence, juvenile delinquency, and guidance. The author and publisher have presented an attractive volume, clearly written, and generally adequate.

Mental Hygiene and Education, by MANDEL SHERMAN. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1934, xi + 295 pages, \$2.25.

To understand why our youthful companions (and older ones, too) behave as they do, think as they do, and look as they do helps us partly to understand why we ourselves do what we do and impress others as we do. In this volume, Dr. Sherman helps us to comprehend what a complicated matter human conduct is. Following his general chapters on emotional adjustment, personality, attitudes and differentiation of personality, he explains the nature and effect of mental-emotional conflicts, compensatory behavior and defense reactions, phantasy and neurotic behaviors, symbolic behaviors, and finally adolescence and its peculiar phenomena and disorders.

Prediction of Vocational Success, by EDWARD L. THORNDIKE, et al. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1934, xxiv + 284 pages, \$2.50.

In this volume, there is reported "the first comprehensive effort in the United States to learn what happens in later years to children who are given vocational guidance." The investigators obtained in 1922 the school records of 2,225 children then about 14 years of age, gave them various tests, and followed their educational and voca-

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These negative findings may be disappointing. But it is better to know the truth than it is to continue in the haze of romance that has typified many *a priori* "thinkers" in the field of guidance.

The Social Studies Curriculum. Fourth Yearbook, The National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1934, 227 pages, \$2.00.

This volume consists of expositions of social-studies courses in six progressive-school systems—Denver, Des Moines, Tulsa, San Antonio, Pasadena, and Reading, Mass.—and in three experimental schools—Lincoln School of Teachers College, the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools, and the Germantown Friends Schools. Preceding these sections are four more general articles: Needed Revisions in Social-Science Instruction by C. H. Judd; Critical Considerations in Curriculum Making by H. Gordon Hullfish; Techniques for the Selection of Curricular Materials in the Social Studies by Edgar B. Wesley; and The School Administrator's Demands on the Social Sciences by L. A. White. The last section of the Yearbook is a very adequate bibliography on the social-studies curriculum.

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social education. It should serve admirably as a supplement to the final volumes of the Commission to Investigate the Social Studies.

A Political Geography of the British Empire, by C. B. FAWCETT. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1933, xiii + 409 pages.

The British Empire is a supernational organization. As such it is somewhat analagous, though on a much greater scale, to the conception which the states-rights advocates have held regarding our own country. Partly because of historical necessity and partly because of national temperament, the United States has continually moved toward national unity whereas the British Empire has tolerated the development of political and economic nationalisms in many parts of its far-flung dominions.

Nevertheless, the Empire has succeeded in rising above narrow nationalisms and to a considerable extent in separating nationalism from politics. How such success has been attained and what problems the future holds are the chief bases of orientation of the present volume. Many aspects of these problems are of direct significance to Americans not only as world citizens but as students of the influences of national and economic group consciousness, of changing birth rates, of advancing technology in the United States proper and in our "American Empire."

Directed Study Guide in the Origins of Contemporary Civilization, by ALICE N. GIBBONS. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1934, viii + 255 pages, \$8.00.

This study guide consists of twelve units. The first unit is "A Look Ahead at the Year's Work," and the last "A Look Backward at the Year's Work?" Units II-VIII give an overview of world history; units IX-XI deal with the modern world in terms of such significant aspects as nationalism and world commerce; art, science, and religion; and democracy. Appendices deal with work methods and skills.

Each unit contains an explanatory introduction, problems for study, text references, and suggested activities and questions, for the class and "for the ambitious."

The Autobiography of George Washington, arranged and edited by EDWARD C. BOYKIN. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., 1935, 119 pages, over 100 illustrations, \$2.50.

This most interesting volume is based upon the authentic writings of Washington—his letters,

State papers, addresses, messages, and orders to his officers and soldiers. In them, says the editor, he revealed what he thought and how he felt about events and people with startling frankness. Hence it has been possible to reconstruct his own story after 1753 when he entered public service, in his own words, with his own spellings, abbreviations, and punctuation. Editor's notes have been introduced only to bridge the gaps and to supply the historical sequence. Certain it is that no reader who opens this book will be able to stop until he has read it all, unless he be quite empty of interest in the personality of the great Washington, and in the people and events with which his name is associated.

Unrolling the Map: The Story of Exploration, by LEONARD OUTHWAITE. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., 1935, xiv + 351 pages, 56 maps, \$3.75.

Books hold no inconsiderable place in the budgets of all alert teachers. This reviewer is bound to be conservative in urging his readers to purchase them. Seldom does he feel justified in making a sweeping recommendation. The perusal of the present volume does, however, arouse his enthusiasm to such a degree that he urges teachers of geography, history, general science, mathematics, and general literature to add this book to their personal libraries and to recommend it for their school libraries.

Unrolling the Map traces the enlargement and perfecting of the information regarding this earth, and the people, and the fauna and flora that lived thereon, from 3000 B.C. to the present day. The author accepts such information regarding the earliest explorations—such as King Necho's circumnavigation of Africa—with the explanation that there is no reason why such a voyage should not have taken place. He departs from the path of the purely scholastic writer to imagine what might have been the feelings of the explorers, but such treatment lends probability and realism to what otherwise would seem to be a humdrum occurrence.

Certainly, the author has rendered a great service to every youth and adult who feels a thrill of pride in the adventures of man, in explaining more about the world he lives in.

A Study of the Verbal Accompaniments to Educational Motion Pictures, by LEON H. WESTFALL. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, vii + 63 pages, \$1.50.

The uses of motion pictures as supplementary devices for classroom instruction have been increasing rapidly during the past few years. Too

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frequently, however, the results of such instruction have been of doubtful value due to the teacher's lack of knowledge regarding the amount and the method of verbal explanation and questioning that should accompany the pictures. In the volume here reviewed, Dr. Westfall has endeavored to make an evaluation and comparison of the more common and practical ways of explaining the picture content of films to pupils. He concludes that for silent pictures, an explanation or lecture by the teacher given before the picture is shown is valuable; long captions in the film itself actually reduce the degree of understanding by the pupils. For sound films, however, a mechanically reproduced lecture is signifi-

cantly superior to any other form of verbal accompaniment.

All tests on which the author bases his conclusions were of recall or selection type. In no case was reflective thinking called for. It would seem to the reviewer, therefore, that his conclusions may not be valid for learning that involves thinking.

Leadership in a Changing World, edited by M. DAVID HOFFMAN AND RUTH WANGER; photographs by MARGARET BOURKE-WHITE. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1935, xv + 418 pages, \$1.60.

Here is a most challenging book of selections from the writings of contemporary leaders in our efforts to discover and to create better economic and political controls for our social structure. These selections are grouped under appropriate headings. Thus *Challenges to the Old Economic Order* contains excerpts from F. D. Roosevelt, Stuart Chase, E. A. Filene, Norman Thomas, Norman Angel, Jose Ortega y Gasset, M. Ilin, André Siegfried, and Sir Arthur Salter. *New Foundations and Trends in Government* includes writings of Woodrow Wilson, J. Ramsay MacDonald, Nikolai Lenin, Benito Mussolini, Aristide Briand, Gandhi, Sun Yat-sen, A. J. Balfour, and Mustafa Kemal. The writers in the other groupings—*A New Social Order through Education*, and *A Vision of a Nobler Life*—are quite as striking.

This valuable volume is intended both for English classes and for social-studies classes. It certainly belongs in the library of every busy teacher who finds it difficult to know such writers as are included in this anthology except through cartoons and Sunday supplements.

Good Manners, by BETH B. McLEAN. Peoria, Ill.: The Manual Arts Press, 1934, 128 pages, \$.72.

However simple the social life in which youths and adults engage, knowledge of and habits which conform to the social conventions are necessary to his sense of security. But "good manners"—as distinguished from formal etiquette—are more than that. They have a reciprocal action; they do make us more considerate, more careful not to hurt others, and if possible to help. Hence, an increasing number of progressive schools are making provision for both instruction and practice in those simple courtesies that accompany civilized living. In this little volume, the author has been very happy in her presentation; the situations explained are so natural and the behavior advised so reasonable that every pupil should be glad for the help he receives.

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